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ABSTRACT

This curriculum bulletin focuses on instruction in the Connecticut public schools in modern foreign languages and Latin. A curriculum outline for levels 1 through 6 and appendixes treating a glossary of terms, patterns as grammar, and a sample test comprise the section cn modern languages. The Latin topics cover: (1) phonology, (2) morphology, (3) syntax, (4) vocabulary, (5) reading, (6) testing (7) curriculum suggestions for a 4-year sequence, and (8) educational equipment. Suggestions for the teacher's library are made for both modern languages and Latin. (RL)

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Curriculum Bulletin Series

No. V

(Tentative)

Foreign Languages

Grades 7 - 12

FL 000 194

STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Hartford, Connecticut

September, 1958

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PREFACE

Forty years ago, the public high school in the United States was a selective institution enrolling a small percentage of the youth of high school age most of whom were following a college preparatory program. Today, the public high school is a non-selective institution enrolling nearly all of the youth in the high school age group many of whom are following a college preparatory program, but many more who are following a variety of other programs, depending on their abilities and interests. This change has come about gradually. It has come about because more and more parents are insisting that their sons and daughters have the opportunity to profit from a high school education. It is a change whose implications are only now becoming understood by the people of the United States. Our nation has set itself the goal of providing a free and appropriate public educational program through high school for all its youth.

In December, 1957, the Connecticut State Board of Education, conscious of its leadership responsibility, directed "the Commissioner of Education and the State Department of Education, through its consultative services and the state teachers colleges, to develop with educational and other appropriate citizens' groups, a plan of providing additional assistance to local boards of education to make the good schools of Connecticut better."

These Curriculum Bulletins are a first step in complying with the action of the State Board of Education. This series will include a bulletin on each area in the secondary school program as well as one dealing with some of the over-all problems involved.

It should be clearly understood that these Bulletins are:

1. Preliminary and tentative statements designed as working papers to be constructively and critically analyzed and revised.

2. Suggestions to local school authorities with respect to curriculum materials and methods developed by a specialist in each area with the assistance of an advisory committee of representative professional persons.

3. Presented to the people of the State of Connecticut with the conviction that through their study and revision, more effective curriculum guides can be developed.

It is hoped that this process of study and revision, involving laymen and professionals alike, will help to clarify our educational goals and to develop a sense of direction in working towards these goals. To this end, criticisms of these Bulletins and suggestions for their improvement are earnestly solicited.

William J. Sanders,
Commissioner of Education

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FOREWORD

Without communication there can be no understanding. And without understanding there can be no civilized living. The advances of technology have made us next-door neighbors to all the peoples of the world. It is imperative that we now learn ever more effectively to communicate with them, to understand them, to get along with them.

Foreign language study is, therefore, assuming today a crucially important role. It is not to be considered a frill, nor a mere hurdle to be cleared (or circumvented) in order to enter college. It should be taken for what it really is: a door to new avenues of communication; a window which gives new insights on the family of man.

This bulletin attempts to clarify the nature and function of language learning and offers suggestions for designing effective foreign language programs in our schools.

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[1]On leave of absence during 1957-58.

INTRODUCTION

In our day, both the skills and the broadened cultural horizon which can result from the study of foreign languages, contemporary and classical, should be made available to *all* American youth, who should be encouraged to study languages whether or not they plan to go to college. The values of language learning are cumulative. While even two years of a language can provide an understanding and use of basic speech patterns, and a linguistic and cultural perspective, it takes several more years of study to acquire effective skills and broad insights in another language and culture.

Contemporary and classical languages: In our concern for modern language study, it would be short-sighted to neglect the study of classical languages. Contemporary and classical languages have some broad, cultural objectives in common.[1] In any foreign-language program, contemporary or classical, the student should seek:

1. To acquire an understanding and appreciation of another people's way of life, literature and civilization;

2. To develop an awareness of the relation between his own language and civilization and that of another country;

3. To achieve a deeper understanding of himself, his nation and its history.

With regard to linguistic objectives, however, contemporary and classical languages diverge. For the contemporary languages they are:

1. To understand the language without reference to English, especially as it is spoken by native speakers in situations similar to the learner's own experience.

2. To speak the language in similar situations in a manner acceptable to native speakers, also without reference to English. Of course, the development of near native fluency is a much slower process.

3. To read, without conscious translation into English, newspapers, magazines, and literary texts.

4. To write, without reference to English, the language in the authentic patterns of the foreign country.

For the classical languages, the student's linguistic objectives, arranged in order of importance, are:

1. To read classical authors in the original with comprehension and appreciation. Writing, listening, and oral use are primarily tools to this end.

2. To express the thought of the original classical text in correspondingly good English. This goes far beyond literal translation. An acceptable final version should never retain structures that are foreign to English.

3. To acquire a knowledge of the word stems and patterns which are the bases of a large part of the English language.

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[1] *Values, Objectives and Scope of Foreign Language Study: A Report of the State Advisory Committee on Foreign Language Instruction to the Commissioner of Education in Connecticut and to the State Department of Education,* Hartford, Connecticut, July 1, 1956.

Which languages should be taught? Connecticut public schools offer programs in Latin, French, Spanish, German and Italian; a few offer Polish and Hebrew; Russian is being added in some communities. The study of any of these languages is of value because, in addition to providing a new avenue of communication, it can develop in the student a "language sense" which will facilitate the learning of other languages. It is important that every school, no matter how small, offer a sustained program in at least one contemporary language in addition to Latin. So-called "general language" or "exploratory language" courses on the junior high school level have seldom proved to be of value. Where they exist, it would be preferable to discontinue them in favor of an earlier start of any one language.

Who should study foreign languages? All children can benefit from foreign-language study, particularly if it is begun in the elementary grades. And all children should be given an opportunity to continue this study for as long as their interest and ability permit, whether or not they are planning to go to college.

Academically talented students should be given every encouragement to pursue the study of a foreign language and culture for at least four years on the high school level. It is better for a student to study one foreign language, contemporary or classical, until he has achieved a good degree of proficiency in it, than to study two or more languages for a shorter period of time. Students who have been successful in the study of one foreign language should be encouraged to add the study of a second foreign language to their program.

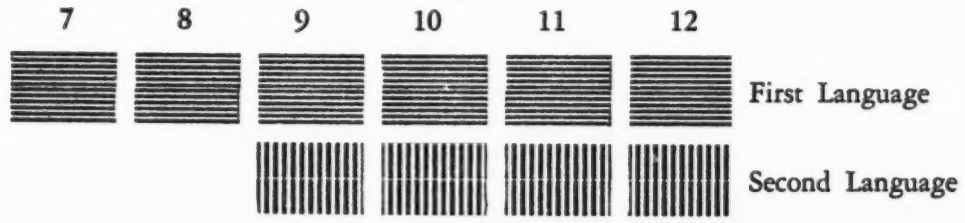
Continuity in language study: One of the greatest needs in foreign-language study today is for a cohesive pattern of instruction. In school systems where it is not feasible to begin foreign language study in the lower grades, it may well be possible to begin in grade 7 and develop a program which will continue through the senior year of high school.

It is imperative that a student pursue his foreign-language study through his senior year if he plans to continue with the language in college. Every effort should be made to replace the inadequate 2-2 pattern (two years each of two languages) with a continuing pattern of instruction over a period of years.

Foreign-language study should include more than the development of skills and the acquisition of facts, important as these are. To be of lasting educational value to the pupil, whether he plans to enter college or close his formal schooling with high school, his foreign-language experience should present a coherent program leading him from elementary work to a point where he can begin truly to know the language and appreciate the civilization and the literature with which he is concerned.

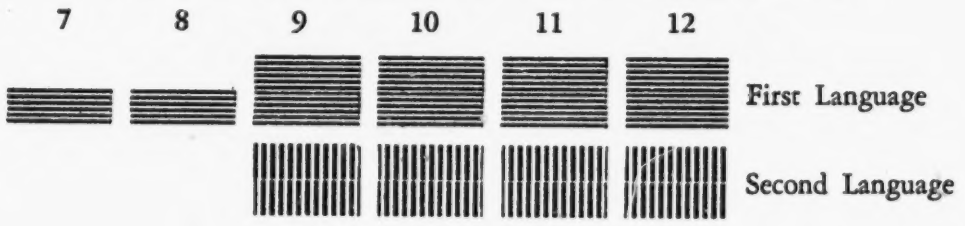
Ideal programs: An ideal program would consist of six years of language instruction begun in the seventh grade and continued through the senior year of high school. This would enable a pupil to continue with language study in college on an intellectual level comparable to his work in English and other subjects rather than on an elementary or intermediate level. Those not continuing in college would still have a solid foundation in foreign language. Students showing interest and aptitude should be encouraged to begin a second foreign language in grade 9.

PLAN A: SIX FULL YEARS



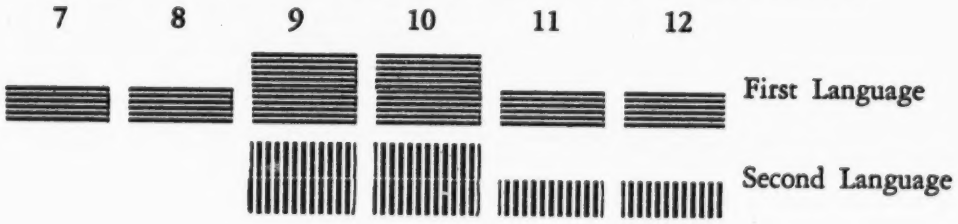
In another plan, four full years of language instruction would be preceded by instruction in the seventh and eighth grades twice or three times a week or if possible five times a week for a half period. With such an alternating schedule it should be possible for a teacher to carry two groups (seventh and eighth grades) during the week. This would make possible greater flexibility in student programs. A second foreign language may be started in grade 9.

PLAN B: FIVE YEARS OVER A SIX YEAR PERIOD



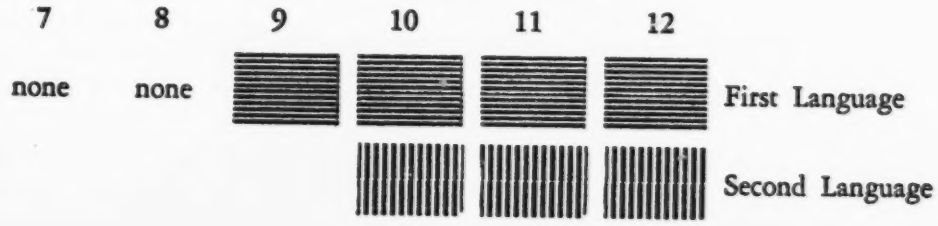
As a compromise plan, where six or five years of language work cannot be offered, an alternate arrangement may be provided whereby four years of language work may be spread over a six-year period. There are certain advantages to experimenting with such plans. They allow an early start in language study and, at the same time, permit better correlation with language work at the college level. Thus, instruction begun in the seventh grade may continue through the twelfth grade, although only in the ninth and tenth grades is the language studied on a full-time basis. A second foreign language may be started in grade 9.

PLAN C: FOUR YEARS OVER A SIX YEAR PERIOD



Four full years of foreign-language instruction makes a good program. It is currently found in some of our better schools. Such programs must be encouraged and schools which now offer only three years of instruction should be aided in their efforts to add a fourth year. Here foreign language study begins in the ninth grade; a second foreign language may be started in grade 10.

PLAN D: FOUR FULL CONTINUOUS YEARS BEGINNING IN GRADE NINE



It is of the utmost importance that schools provide instruction in advanced classes even if the enrollment is small. Wherever possible, schools should plan their advanced courses in one or more languages in such a way that students may have the opportunity to earn advanced placement and standing in college.[1]

In schools where some pupils begin a language in the seventh or eighth grade and others in the ninth or tenth grade, merging of the two streams may occur as early as the second level of instruction (see footnote on p. 12). Separate programs should be maintained through high school for students who have started a language in the early elementary grades.

[1] *Advanced Placement Program,* College Entrance Examination Board, 425 West 117th St., New York 27, N. Y.

MODERN LANGUAGES

FIRST PRINCIPLES

During recent decades a clearer understanding has been gained about the nature of language, the nature of learning, and the relation of language to individual and community life. Considerable progress has been made in the techniques of language teaching. No teacher can afford to ignore these recent findings, even though they may cause sweeping changes in the practices now observed in most of our language classrooms. The nature and extent of some of these changes will be made clearer by the following comments offered, in the light of our new knowledge, on the characteristic features of any course in a contemporary language.

Language and writing: Language is first of all something you say. All languages were spoken long before they were written, and some have never been written down. Every individual speaks his native tongue for years before he writes it, and he continues throughout his life to talk much more than he writes. Writing is to language what a portrait is to a living person.

The mother tongue: As children we produce many thousands of spoken words every day, so that all the sound patterns of our native tongue become matters of habit. While still very young, we learn how words change, go together, and affect each other as they fit into patterns or sentences. We learn this not by analysis but simply by imitation an analogy. No matter how complicated the sound system and the syntax of a language may seem to an outsider, every five-year-old speaker of that language knows them thoroughly.

Language and literature: Literature is a fine art that uses the elements of a language as its medium of expression. In written form language lends itself admirably to prescription and manipulation and thus is readily adapted to the selective and creative purposes of art. But literature is by no means restricted to writing, and the better the literature the more fully the phenomena of sound will have been taken into account.

The language skills: A period of ear and tongue training *without the aid of symbols for the eye* is the essential foundation for effective language learning. Only by memorizing and using examples of the syntax patterns of the new language before they are analyzed can the student make grammar become an efficient tool, which is its essential function in language learning. From the start, the learner should hear only authentic speech, speak only what has been heard, read only what has been spoken, write only what has been read, analyze only what has been heard, spoken, read, written and learned.

The role of English: A simple and effective procedure is to conduct at least a part of every class entirely in the foreign language. During this time the teacher may have to use a word or two of English to meet an emergency, but the students may *not* use English. This plan is readily accepted by the students if its purpose and value are made clear. This part of the class must come first; when the foreign language is dropped in favor of English, the foreign language should not be returned to until the next day. Above all, the two languages should never be scrambled, as they are, unfortunately, in most textbooks.

The role of the book: Books should be closed and out of reach for a part of the time in *every* class and for *most* of the time in most classes. This is to

give the ear and the tongue the training they must have but are prevented from receiving if the eye is allowed access to written symbols at all times. The problem is similar to learning the touch system on the typewriter. To learn to type with the eyes glued on the letters on the keys is not impossible, but the process is much easier if the eye is not allowed to interfere with the sense that must be developed in the fingers.

CURRICULUM OUTLINE: CONTENT AND PROCEDURES

Level I[1]

No class period is of greater importance than the first. At that time the objectives of the course, the methods of procedure, and the "ground rules" are set forth in plain English and agreed upon by the entire class. The plan for the use of English should be explained: that the teacher may sometimes have to say a word or two in English, but that the students may not. It should be made clear why they are not to study vocabulary in the form of word lists in two languages and why the teacher will not translate from the foreign language into English or from English into the foreign language unless it is something they have thoroughly memorized. If the students understand *why* these rules have been set up, they will accept them cheerfully and insist that they be followed.

SKILLS

Time should be given to each of the four skills, not only in the course as a whole but also in every unit, in approximately the following proportions: Hearing, 40%; Speaking, 30%; Reading 20%; Writing, 10%.

Hearing: The teacher must model clearly and repeatedly all the sound patterns of the new tongue that the student is expected to learn. Mechanical devices that aid in the repetition are of course of the greatest value when properly used. The student should listen to native speakers, either in person or through recordings.

Speaking: When new material is presented, speaking should be done by the students first in chorus, then in sections of the class, then individually. Drill on separate sounds should wait until whole sequences of sound patterns have been used in normal speech for some time. In general, individual problems of pronunciation should not be dwelt upon in class, but treated individually outside of class. The student may be expected to hear far more than he can speak; this is characteristic of all language learning.

Reading: Reading should first be introduced by confronting the student with the speech patterns he already knows and has practiced thoroughly. This plan of "reading what you already know how to say" must be followed throughout Level I. In the final units, some prose selected from a book or periodical should be read, after first being presented orally, section by section. If carefully worked out, the material studied in earlier units will prepare the student for that contained in the reading selection.

Writing: Writing may be introduced along with reading, and should deal with the same material that the student has heard and said many times. Completion exercises and dictation in which the student writes what has been assigned for study add to his sense of accomplishment and to his speed of learning.

STRUCTURE

No systematic analysis of structure is attempted at Level I. Rather, a series of situations, set forth in dialogue between two or more people, present speech

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[1]The labels "Level I," "Level II," etc., are being used in place of "First Year," "Second Year," etc., because in some instances pupils may enter secondary school with previous language training acquired in the grades. Also, for particularly bright pupils acceleration may be possible so that a given level of achievement may be reached independently of the number of years spent in language study.

in its normal function. These inevitably include a wide range of high-frequency form patterns. There should be fifteen to twenty situations of this kind to be assimilated at this level.

The teacher should constantly refer to the total perspective of high frequency speech patterns to make sure that important structural forms (tenses, auxiliaries, pronoun substitution, agreements, for example) are not being neglected while other relatively unimportant matters are being overstressed. At this level, control of structure is far more important than acquaintance with an extensive vocabulary. Recommended rule: maximize structure, minimize vocabulary.

CONTENT

Vocabulary is not to be studied in terms of isolated words or paired with English equivalents. Rather, it is to be learned in patterns of speech related to a situation. Example: It is possible to pair the French *bon* with the English *good* and *jour* with *day*. However, *bonjour* does not mean *good day*. It is simply one of the expressions used when one person greets another in France.

In addition to the basic dialogues, there are many items of linguistic, cultural, and literary value that may be introduced at Level I. Each unit may contain material such as greetings, comments on health and the weather, numbers, rhymes and proverbs, brief selections of poetry, all of which may be memorized. In concurrence with the early units, readings in English that reveal valid cultural insights about the new country may be assigned.

CLASS PROGRAM

The "ground rules" must be clearly established first of all. The student must know what he is expected to do and not to do, and why. A class or two at the start spent in such explanation will bring rich rewards in the months that follow. At the start of the course and of each class the teacher must give the student ample opportunity to hear the new language. He should *never* begin a class by saying, "are there any questions?" The students require the teacher's aid in reducing the mother tongue to a recessive role so that the small quantity of new language they possess may dominate their consciousness.

If any part of the class is to be conducted in English, it must always be brief and at the end; *never* at the beginning. If the book is to be used, it must always *follow* the part of the class conducted without books, never precede. If there is to be a written exercise, have it at the end of the class, but say at the beginning that there will be one; learning will thus be increased.

Choral repetition should be used in every class, followed by individual performance. Teacher-student exchange of oral speech should be followed by exchange between students. With proper coaching most students can conduct drills on pattern practice for a brief period (see Appendix B). Variety in the class program is highly desirable, provided there is sufficient repetition and emphasis concerning new learning. Students should never be asked to guess what is right, or worse yet, to vote on what is right, nor should they ever be expected to invent the new language. All areas of behavior in the new language must be modelled by the teacher.

Realia and Audio-Visual Aids: The most useful visual aid is the blackboard; it should be used not only for words but also for diagrams, numbers and pictures.

Very useful are pictures in magazines from the country concerned, especially pictures of people, clothing, food, transportation, amusements, occupa-

tions, homes and buildings, terrain, and art objects. The students can contribute to the "cultural island" by readings and reports and by making appropriate things. Also useful are books, magazines, coins, and clothing from the other country. Items of realia should only incidentally be used as aids in learning vocabulary; their prime purpose is to represent and suggest the situations with which linguistic expressions are concerned. Slides and film-strips require rather extensive preparation by the teacher, both before and after use, but they can be most effective teaching aids when made part of a situation. Few films are designed to play an integrated part in language learning but they do provide an important medium for practice in listening and for cultural information. However, beware of the foreign film with English titles; it is too likely to diminish the co-ordinate learning that has been established.

In its simplest form the language laboratory consists of a tape recorder or a phonograph with a sufficient number of earphones for a part or all of a class to listen at one time. It requires space in a room that is suitably supervised and a portion of the student's schedule. Two half-periods a week are a suggested minimum for laboratory exercises; if possible these should be in addition to the regular class time; if not, a half period of class time twice a week can well be spent in the laboratory. Such a laboratory provides only for *listening* practice, but this is by far the most important contribution of the laboratory at this level. More than one tape recorder and enough earphones for at least one full class are, of course, highly desirable. With additional equipment a further step is possible, in which the student records his voice in imitation of a spoken model, then compares his performance with that of the original. The language laboratory offers the possibility of testing listening comprehension and also speaking ability. At Level I, simple repetition exercises, listening comprehension drills and oral fill-ins followed by the complete model provide a learning experience of a most valuable kind.

Homework: For a number of weeks homework should not include new learnings in the language skills; instead, the student should be urged to practice only what has been thoroughly drilled in class. At the same time, reading *about* the language and the culture being studied may be assigned. Once the nature of pattern practice has been made clear (see Appendix B), drill exercises that involve changes in order and form may be done as homework. Material learned orally and then studied for reading and writing may also be done outside of class. The important principle is to ask the student to do as homework only what he can do without risking the wrong learning that may result when he does not have adequate models to follow.

Measurement: A distinction should be made between the *quiz,* a brief exercise that occupies only a few minutes of class time, the *test,* that occupies all or nearly all of a class period and covers a body of material specifically assigned for review (usually the work of one or two units), and the *examination,* a sustained performance that comes at the end of a term or semester and summarizes a long sequence of learning. *Grades* should be given for achievement in hearing and speaking, as well as in reading and writing. All grades officially reported should represent an evaluation of achievement in all language activities.

Early in Level I, accurate measurement of listening comprehension may be obtained through picture tests; as soon as reading and writing are introduced, these skills may be measured along with listening comprehension. Speaking ability presents the most difficult problem in testing. Some techniques for this are being developed, especially with the aid of equipment for

recording the student's voice. Important in evaluation are not only correctness of form but also intonation, promptness, naturalness and idiom.

Quizzes, tests, and examinations should be in the foreign language; directions, however, may be given in English. Tests should deal with one thing at a time, difficulty should increase gradually as the test proceeds, clear indications should be given for the review that is to precede the test, and a sampling of all that is reviewed should be tested (see Appendix C).

Planning a Series of Units: The first step in unit planning is to identify a series of situations which are to be studied. They should be chosen for their interest to the student and the structural forms they may contain. For each situation a dialogue is prepared, containing a number of exchanges which may be divided into two parts. A brief explanation is given of what the dialogue is about. The English equivalent of each pattern is given *once,* and then repeated in the foreign language by teacher and students until it is thoroughly assimilated. A unit also contains material for pattern practice. The student is shown by substitutions and other changes how these expressions may fit into other circumstances. The purpose of pattern practice is to encourage learning not by analysis but by analogy and to illustrate the forms of expressions as distinct from the content of the words themselves (see Appendix B). Each unit should terminate with a test on all the elements of the work in that unit. There should be no advance assignment on the day of this test so that the student may give his full attention to consolidating whatever skills he has acquired.

Level II

The first units of Level II should be devoted to review; yet the student must not be made to feel that he is again starting at the very beginning. He should be made aware that he is working at a different level and that more is expected of him.

SKILLS

There should be a change in emphasis. At Level II more attention should be given to reading and less to hearing and speaking than at Level I. The work should be divided as follows: Hearing, 30%; Speaking, 20%; Reading, 40%; Writing, 10%.

Hearing: The modeling by the teacher of the sounds and intonation patterns in new material is still very important. The language laboratory, even in its most modest form, can be of the greatest assistance in learning to hear.

Speaking: Choral response is still very useful at this level. Exchange of spoken language between teacher and students and between one student and another continues to be very important.

Reading: During the first half-year of Level II reading should continue to be based on what first has been heard. In the second half of Level II the student may be asked to read without assistance material which has not been read aloud to him.

Writing: A relatively minor role is still given to writing except as it serves to accompany what is read and spoken. Dictation, completion exercises and copying should be the principal activities. Throughout this level the attempt to write without adequate models to follow is only too likely to result in wrong learning. The writing of dialogues and compositions, unless limited to what the student has learned thoroughly, should be avoided.

STRUCTURE

During Level I the most common patterns of sound, order and form will have appeared and many will have been learned. At Level II there should be a constant effort to reinforce the patterns already learned and to introduce frequent structural forms that had not yet appeared. For example, if comparisons or exclamations had not yet been introduced, they should now be brought in. In addition, there should now be an attempt at a fairly complete usage of such common structural forms as the tenses of verbs or the pronouns used in normal speech. But an exhaustive study of, say, the articles or conditional clauses should not be made at this level.

By now a fairly complete presentation and assimilation of phonology patterns should have been made. Reference to a list of high-frequency patterns of syntax and morphology should continue and the somewhat longer and more complicated forms, such as those involving interrogative and relative pronouns, should appear. But what is *said* must be the constant criterion for learning rather than what is *written.*

VOCABULARY

Closely allied to the study of structure is the problem of vocabulary. The learning of word lists and the pairing of two languages, item by item, must still be strictly avoided. Vocabulary must be learned in context and not in lexical form.

In the second part of Level II, when reading is assigned as a first step in learning new material, the student will benefit from guidance as to the new items he should attempt to learn, for, obviously, he cannot learn them all. After such material has been assigned for reading, discussion and other exercises, the student should learn as *vocabulary* items so selected and marked in context. The selection should be based upon what is neither too easy nor too difficult to merit his attention. Frequency lists are helpful in making this selection.

CONTENT

After the early weeks of review, new material should appear in the form of a sequence of dialogues. They will now be somewhat longer and more complex in content, structure, and vocabulary, and they may well be oriented toward reading selections that will follow later in Level II.

In the choice of reading selections, several points are important. A series of brief, unrelated selections will bring variety into the course but will also pose the problem of a new focus and a new vocabulary for each new item. There is much to be said for continuity with respect to style of one author, the relation of situations, and the reappearance of characters with whom the student is already acquainted.

Beginning with Level II, the reading material should be genuine, not manufactured. The text should not be rewritten or simplified, but it may be abridged to accommodate the book to the slower pace at which it will be read. But let us beware of too slow a pace. It is better to read a lot of easy material than to decipher one or two pages of prose whose stylistic beauty is clear only to the teacher. *Explication de texte,* though valuable as an exercise in literary and structural analysis, bears little resemblance to the process of reading.

CULTURE

In cultural content Level II should rely most heavily upon the personal contribution of the teacher as a representative of a new social community.

In the dialogues and in the reading, significant cultural items, both linguistic and non-linguistic, should receive due attention. A language laboratory offers, through the playing of disc and tape recordings made abroad, remarkably effective ways of introducing cultural items of high authenticity.

At each level, significant cultural contrasts should be pointed out, but similarities are important, too. The pupil should be freed from his unicultural limitations. However, if he is exposed only to contrasts between his own and the other culture, there is danger that he will merely be reinforced in his innate suspicion of all that is strange. Do not overstress the primitive and colorful elements in the foreign culture. The *sabot* and *serape* approach can be dangerous; a little quaintness goes a long way, and it is wise to devote some attention to cities, sidewalks, subways and airports.

CLASS PROGRAM

The teacher should spend the first few minutes talking in the foreign language while the students listen. This will activate the students' internalized language behavior and stimulate responses in the foreign language. The class will now be ready for choral response, questionnaire, discussion, dialogue patterns and oral give-and-take between teacher and students and between one student and another, both with old material and new. Pattern practice involving drills on new and partly new structural forms and vocabulary should be a part of every class, though it must not be continued too long at a time (see Appendix B). Oral drills may be followed by written exercises and review of well known material followed by excursions into new areas. Needless to say, all this will be in the foreign language, with strict enforcement of rules about a very minor use of English as may be deemed wise by the teacher. If any part of the class is to be conducted in English, it must be brief and at the end of the period.

Audio-Visual Aids: The "cultural island" that centers about the language behavior of the teacher can be augmented by the presence in the classroom of realia that are characteristic of life in the country being studied. The appeal of such realia is to the eye rather than to the ear and they can add greatly in establishing situations for purposes of conversation. The books, periodicals, maps, posters, pictures, coins, articles of clothing and art objects that are brought in should be authentic, representative, and currently important.

The language laboratory offers a new and remarkably effective way of providing practice in the language skills under excellent conditions of learning. To be most useful, the exercises used in the laboratory must be closely linked to the work in the classroom, and the drills on structure, vocabulary, and listening comprehension should involve the texts of the lessons currently being studied. It requires substantial extra effort on the part of the teacher to correlate class activities and laboratory activities in this way, but the results will make the effort worth while. By the use of native speakers and the inclusion of excerpts from discs and tapes made in the foreign country, the laboratory can also furnish a cultural experience that is fully authentic.

Homework: At the start of Level II homework should involve exercises that will resurrect and strengthen the patterns of language behavior, internal and overt, that are already familiar. Pencil and paper aid greatly in many learning activities, but language functions perfectly in the dark. Control of language without dependence upon the eye is the student's goal. Exercises must be devised for homework that involve much more than putting black marks on paper or white marks on the blackboard. Probably the most effective and

most stimulating exercise is pattern drill in which the normal, frequent and detailed changes in linguistic structure are involved. Next in importance is the reading, during the first half of the year, of material already presented to the ear, and later of material that is new.

Measurement: At level II frequent use should be made of the five to ten minute class quiz. It may come at the beginning of the period and involve work done between classes, or at the end of the period and concern matters just learned. Listening comprehension, structure, and vocabulary, as well as reading and writing, are all involved, with varying degrees of emphasis. Dictations, fill-ins, completions, restatements, fixed choices—all can be used. Of course such exercises should be exclusively in the foreign language, with the possible exception of directions. The hour test should continue to be used at the end of the unit and should involve a representative sampling of all its material. If measurement is to reinforce learning, the brevity of the time lag between performance and knowledge of rightness and wrongness of response is of the utmost importance. For quizzes and tests the right answer should be made known to the student, either orally or in writing, by the end of the class period. A correct set of answers to a quiz or a test can be posted at the door for students to read as they leave the classroom.

Level III

SKILLS

The recommended amount of time to be devoted to the four skills at this level is: Hearing, 20%; Speaking, 20%; Reading, 40%; Writing, 20%.

The change in level should be made apparent to the students by the increased speed of speech, the faster tempo of dialogue, the wider variety and greater difficulty of the material used, and the narrower limits of tolerance within which acceptable responses must be given.

The teacher should continue to provide the class with constant practice in hearing by his initial monologue on subjects that are both familiar and unfamiliar to the students. He should now speak at the average speed of normal colloquial speech, without repetition and using a vocabulary that invites the full attention of the listener without discouraging him. The ability to listen accurately is a skill in which practically all students can hope to attain a satisfactory competence.

Speaking: While continuing to provide practice in hearing, the teacher must make his students talk. Choral response is no less important than before, but individual response should now be more frequent and more sustained. The question and answer procedure between teacher and student is a technique that may be varied in many ways. Questions may be answered as if the student were a character in a story, one student may be directed to ask a question of another who gives an answer in the first person singular; this in turn may be repeated by still another student in the third person singular. Of course such questionnaires must be prepared by the teacher before class and the students must give their answers with books closed. The teacher will do well not to ask questions from an open book, but rather to use a sheet of paper containing the list of questions he has prepared.

Reading: At this level reading may be done as homework and a large portion of class time may be spent in discussing the content and drilling the structures and vocabulary of the reading assigned. There should be new reading assignments every day so that the story may be constantly developed, while

ample time is left for full assimilation of the linguistic forms encountered. Translation is still strictly taboo; students must have sustained practice in attaching meaning to the forms of the new language without reference to the mother tongue. They should be taught to use a dictionary written wholly in the foreign language.

Writing: Practice in writing should continue to be without benefit of English and should include: the writing of resumes or summaries, of precise paragraphs, of controlled compositions .in which subject matter and treatment are specifically indicated (go to someone's house, return a book, thank him for it, etc.) and the rewriting of the text by changing the identity of the speaker and the time of the events. Using a given passage as a model, the student may write a similar passage on another but comparable subject. The constant concern should be to imitate the style and the vocabulary of the author being studied; originality and individualism should wait until the confines of correctness and the dimensions of effectiveness have been clearly perceived. The length of writing assignments should always be indicated as precisely as possible.

STRUCTURE

The student should now have available to him at all times a comprehensive presentation of the standard patterns of the linguistic structure of the new language. He needs a formal summary of all the commonly used structural forms, not a technical analysis of all the grammatical resources of the language. He should learn to perceive the structural identity of disparate statements.

Without imposing upon the student an exhaustive study of grammar for its own sake, the teacher must plan readings and drills in such a way that all the important areas of structural variations are met and learned. It is important, however, that reading passages be chosen and studied for their own value rather than for the examples of structural patterns they may happen to contain, which should not be made the unique target of the student's attention. Just as the Sabbath was made for man and not man for the Sabbath, so grammar was made for the student and not the student for grammar.

CONTENT

In the reading and cultural content of Level III considerable freedom of choice is permitted. Various forms of literature may be introduced, including novels and plays of moderate length and short stories. A very useful annotated bibliography of such material in various languages appears in the Northeast Conference Reports of 1955.[1]

CLASS PROGRAM

At this level a good language class proceeds without any English, without any translation, with books closed, with structure used but rarely explained, with all the language skills constantly involved, with events and ideas retold and enlarged upon, and with maximum participation by all members of the class. After initial remarks by the teacher there should be questionnaires, discussions, dialogues, quizzes, oral resumes, comments, drills, exercises, in all the various types of language behavior within the competency of the students.

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[1]See "Report of the Committee on the Role of Literature in Language Teaching," 1955, Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, available from the Master of Arts in Teaching Program, Yale University, New Haven, Connecticut.

Audio-Visual Aids: As in the earlier levels, realia and the language laboratory can play a most effective role, especially as they are made to relate directly to the material currently being read and studied. The properly equipped language laboratory can add greatly to the improvement of the student's skill in listening and speaking and to his feeling of accomplishment in the work of the course.

Homework: Books of all kinds are now important in study outside of class; readers, grammars and work-books containing drills and exercises. It is important that the student know exactly what is expected of him as he prepares his homework and considerable attention must be paid to the procedures he is to follow in order that his efforts outside of class may be fully productive.

Measurement: The types of measurement already described should be continued and their periodic use in class with content appropriate to the program being followed can be a most positive factor in successful learning. Quizzes and tests are given far less to grade the student than to provide the mental discipline without which he cannot be a successful learner.

Level IV

This level differs little in general procedure from Level III. Advance is apparent in the content of the course and in the greater degree of freedom in all language activities. There should be more ambitious reading material and an awareness of cultural and literary facts as such. An intimate knowledge of a few selected masterpieces is recommended, rather than emphasis upon any literary movement or the broader setting in which a work occurs. Recent and contemporary authors are to be preferred to those of earlier centuries. Reading of foreign periodicals may add a new dimension to the study of contemporary problems in social studies courses.

Levels V and VI

In systems where language study is begun in the elementary grades and continued through high school, and with accelerated groups, instruction at Levels V and VI may be provided. Literary, artistic, and political-economic developments are discussed entirely in the foreign language. Research projects, reports, both written and oral, should be assigned on a more advanced level. (See also the College Entrance Examination Board's publication on advanced placement.)[1]

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[1]College Entrance Examination Board, *Advanced Placement Program,* 425 West 117th Street, New York 27, New York.

APPENDIX A

Glossary of Terms

Audio-Visual: A term that needs re-examination when applied to language learning, since *audio* refers to what is central in language, while *visual* does not. It will help language teachers to think in terms of *audio-lingual* (hearing-speaking) activities on the one hand, and *visual-graphic* (reading-writing) activities on the other. Visual aids may also be used to stimulate oral expression.

Choral Response: A repetition by the entire class of what has just been said by the teacher. A few suggestions: do not repeat *with* the students, make them wait until your utterance is finished. Use your hands to indicate when they are to perform. Do not let response drag in tempo; a whole class can repeat an utterance at the same speed as a single person. The number of syllables that can be retained by the ear is small, therefore separate utterances into short sequences for repetition. Once learned, they can be joined to make a full statement. Do not accept a mere monotone in the response. Insist that all the details of intonation, stress, pause, change of pitch, be observed.

Completion exercise: A test in which a statement is given in complete form except for a single word or expression. The missing word or expression is indicated by the rest of the sentence. (Everyone is to bring .. own lunch.) When variants are possible—and they often are—they must be accepted. It is a most effective exercise, both spoken and written, and it can be used for learning, drill, and measurement.

Culture: It may mean personal refinement, or the products of artistic endeavor, or the total belief and behavior patterns of a language community. With all due respect for the first two of these, it is the third that merits most of the attention in a language class, for the language is itself one of the most important elements of culture in this sense. What do people think about, what do they value most, how do they esteem each other and the activities in which they engage? It is the reflection of these things in the new language that is of most interest and value to the student.

Drill: Drill is to language study what scales and arpeggi are to the study of music. The prime objective is the accurate, rapid, automatic execution of whole series of related responses.

Exposition: Learning proceeds much faster if the nature of the problem is first made clear. Exposition usually needs only a few words and a few seconds of time, and it sets the framework within which new learning is to be acquired.

Frequency: An important concept in the preparation and presentation of material, especially during the beginning levels. The words and structural patterns in common use are clearly those that should be learned first. Frequency lists have been prepared for both words and structures in many languages; unfortunately they have been based for the most part on what is written rather than what is said and, as everyone knows, there is not a one-to-one relationship between these two. It is important to learn what is frequent in the audio-lingual area as well as the visual-graphic, and to learn the former first.

Gouin Series: In 1880 François Gouin introduced a type of exercise in which the student repeats a series of sentences describing an action in which

he is engaged—for example, opening a letter, looking for a book. The procedure closely parallels the "autistic" or monologue speech of the young child as he learns the mother tongue, in which the presence or absence of a hearer is relatively unimportant.

Integration Exercises: Many important structural patterns are the result of putting together two brief and independent utterances. This exercise consists in giving the two independent statements which the student must join. Consider this example of the subjunctive in English: "They must be ripe. This is important." Put together, the utterances become: "It is important that they be ripe."

Listening Comprehension: Since the words "aural" and "oral" cannot be dependably distinguished in spoken English, the terms "listening comprehension" and "speaking" are recommended in their stead. These new terms are especially important in testing, since we have only recently discovered how accurately the skill of listening comprehension can be measured.

Morphology: The "form" changes of a given word. For example, most English verbs have four forms (e.g. change, changes, changed, changing); in the Romance language every verb has dozens of different forms.

Pattern Practice: An exercise in which an utterance is repeated with only one element of its structure changed at one time. The purpose is to make clear what the underlying structure is and how it is changed. For example: "She drives her car, he drives his." "She wants her way, he wants his." "She writes to her parents, he writes to his." Its essential value to the student is that it encourages learning that depends not upon analysis but upon analogy and fosters learning by patterns, which seem to be the lowest common denominator for the unit of learning (see Appendix B).

Phonology: The system of sounds employed in the utterances of a given language. There are two main divisions of phonology, the individual sounds, usually referred to as vowels and consonants, and the over-all sound patterns that result when a series of sounds combine into an utterance; this is usually referred to as an intonation. The learner should first concern himself with the over-all utterances of sounds and not attempt to deal with individual sounds until other learnings are well established.

Restatement Exercises: This refers to the "tell me" "ask me," "tell him" "ask him" type of directive which requires the student to make shifts in point of view that are reflected in structural changes of many kinds. It provides an excellent workout in problems of number, person, auxiliaries, reflexive pronouns, and possessives.

Syntax: The order of words and the relation of order changes to meaning. For example, in English, we may say "He has closed his door," or "He has his door closed," or "Has he closed his door?" or "Has he his door closed?" These are all common syntax patterns, each with its special meaning. However, as every five-year old speaker of English knows, we cannot say "He his door closed has." This syntax pattern is not permitted in English, though its counterpart may possibly be found in other languages.

Vocabulary Study: In general, words may be divided into three types for aid in learning. There are the "little" or "empty" words that have little meaning in themselves but serve to particularize items in an utterance and

to relate them to each other as well as to change and guide the direction of thought. Such words are *this, but,* and *although.* "Content" words (*salt, gift, holiday*) tell their own story. Then there are clusters of words, such as a verb that conveys a special concept when used with a given pronoun or preposition (*call it off, go without*). These last present special difficulties for the learner, for in them vocabulary and structure are intimately combined.

APPENDIX B

Patterns as Grammar[1]

What is Grammar? The word "grammar" is generally used for three different concepts. We suggest that these be kept strictly separate, and propose, in this report, to use three distinct terms: structure, description, and usage.

Grammar I. Structure: the devices a language uses to signal meaning. In this sense every language has a "grammar." To say that a language has no "Grammar I" is a contradiction in terms. Structure is neither "good" nor "bad," "logical" nor "illogical;" it simply exists. Nor, obviously, can the total structure ever be identical in any two languages.

Grammar II. Description: the analysis of the structure of a language. "Grammar II" attempts to describe, or to analyze, the features of a given language. Many languages lack this description, which can be "good" or "bad." Many Grammar II's in use today have been found to be inadequate or incomplete. A complete description of a language includes a statement of many kinds of patterning, not only morphological and syntactic, but also phonological and intonational. We must not forget that there is a structure of sounds, of order, and of intonation, as well as a structure of inflections.

Grammar III. Usage: the code of social acceptability. To say that "I don't want no oil" is "bad grammar" is to say that this particular structure has a certain stigma attached to it. Grammar in this sense codifies the patterns of the standard language. Good usage is the etiquette of language.

What are Patterns? Patterns are samples of the various ways in which a language combines its elements in order to convey the meaning. There exist, therefore, sound patterns, inflection patterns, word-order patterns and intonational patterns. A child has mastered these basic patterns of his language before his schooling ever begins.

From the Start: Language in Action

The Committee does not propose doing away with the description of language or with the teaching of good usage, but for the learner of a second language, Grammar I is of first importance, and, unfortunately, too much time is often spent on Grammar II.

The ability to understand and use the spoken language should be the first aim of a course in a modern language. Talking about a language is a fascinating activity at any age, but if it is done in the classroom and in the students' mother-tongue, it is a waste of valuable time. Nothing can replace the practice required for mastering the language. Only when the production of the foreign language has become automatic can the student be said to have made any real progress. Conscious analysis can only slow down the process for the

[1]Reprinted here is most of the report of one of the Working Committees of the 1958 Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, because of its excellent presentation of a fundamental concept in good language teaching. Members of the Committee: Mrs. Dorothy Brodin, Hunter College High School, Chairman; Sidney D. Braun, Yeshiva University; J. Donald Bowen, Foreign Service Institute of the United States Department of State; Nelson Brooks, Yale University; Catherine Davidovitch, University of Pennsylvania; Naomi Goldstein, Psychologist, New York City; Frederick Kempner, William Penn Charter School.

speaker. It is essentially in going from the spoken language to the written language, i.e. in mastering a system of transcription with its own particular conventions, that the student will need Grammar II, or even find it helpful.

In learning a modern language, it is, of course, best to begin acquiring its structure early in life, at an age when habits are easily formed. But whether one learns the language at the age of eight or fourteen or forty, the sequence should be the same: oral before written. The methods used to impart the structure of a language can be the same, but the content of the basic pattern sentences should be markedly different. A child who says: "The doggie eats his dinner fast," and an adult who says: "The diplomat savors his caviar judiciously" are using the same basic sentence pattern, but are expressing quite different thoughts.

In short, the Committee believes that the structure of a language can be imparted, good habits established, and bad habits avoided or, if they arise, corrected, through the use of sentences and drills which illustrate the basic behavior of the language.

Use of Patterns to Present Points of Structure

In using pattern sentences to present points of structure, the following procedures are recommended:

All books should be closed, printed papers out of sight, and all writing materials out of reach. The students must be forbidden to use their mother tongue, although the teacher may, *if absolutely necessary,* say once in the students' mother-tongue what is about to be said in the second language. Nothing is to be written on the board except the original pattern and its variant, and these too should be erased as soon as they are established in the students' minds. (Any written examples will probably be in the original script, and not in transcription. We have, in this report, used a simple form of transcription to approximate what is being said in those languages which have a "non-Roman" alphabet.)

The teacher gives one or two examples, having the class repeat,[1] until individual students are able to carry on when only the sentences presented below in the left-hand column are given to them. The number of sentences will therefore vary considerably from class to class.

French	
Je regarde le livre.	Je le regarde.
Je regarde la maison.	Je la regarde.
Je regarde les enfants.	Je .....
German	
Er steht auf.	Er muss aufstehen.
Er geht hin.	Er muss hingehen.
Er bleibt da.	Er muss dableiben.
Er kommt zurück.	Er muss .....
Italian	
Ho cinque libri.	Ne ho cinque.
Ho pochissimi amici.	Ne ho pochissimi.
Ho molti parenti.	..... molti.

[1]It should be remembered that correct intonation is an inherent and essential part of every pattern.

Spanish

Veo la casa.	Veo a la secretaria.
Veo la agencia.	Veo a Carmen.
Veo el avión	Veo al piloto.
Veo los autos.	Veo a los hombres.
Veo las escuelas.	Veo ..... niñas.

These sentences are quite simple, and present some typical change which should be obvious after two or three examples have been given. At times more examples will be necessary, depending on the complexity of the feature being illustrated, as well as on the alertness of the class. Some students will grasp the relationships immediately; others will need to hear several additional sentences, which could be furnished by those who have already understood the mechanism of the change. In all cases, of course, it is assumed that the students are familiar with the vocabulary of the sentences, and that only one new feature of the language is being taught at a time. This new feature can then be practiced through sentences of increasing length and difficulty, and can be incorporated in drills which test the students' knowledge of other features as well as of the one just learned.

Often the pattern sentences will illustrate a point so simple as not to require any explanation. At times, however, as in the case of the Spanish examples found above, it may be wise for the teacher or, better still, for a student to point out that "Carmen, el piloto, la secretaria, y los hombres son personas, pero la casa, el avión, la agencia y los autos son cosas."

In the case of the French examples, which represent the first step in learning object pronouns, the following sentences might bring out the fact that *le, la,* and *les* are answers to the question *Que?* or *Qui?*

Que regardez-vous?	Je regarde le livre.	Je le regarde.
Que regardez-vous?	Je regarde la maison.	Je la regarde.
Qui regardez-vous?	Je regarde les enfants.	Je les regarde.

It will then be easy to show that *lui* and *leur* also precede the verb, but answer the question *A qui?* Gradually the other personal pronouns can be brought in and contrasted with those already learned; finally, pattern sentences can be used to show in what order the pronouns combine. Only when the students are comfortable in the oral use of pronouns should their attention be called to the agreement of the past participle with a preceding direct object.

It is evident that every language has features which present varying degrees of difficulty. The Committee does not pretend to know or to be able to solve the myriad problems which arise in the classroom. Nor are there as yet many text-books which present the structure of a language clearly and progressively, without devoting unwarranted amounts of space to description. It is possible, however, to present through pattern sentences fairly involved points of structure.

Let us suppose, for example, that a teacher wishes to begin the study of relative pronouns in French. His first concern will be to have the students grasp the function of a relative pronoun. Then he will have to show the difference between the various forms of relative pronouns. He might begin by having the students take two sentences, and make them into a single sentence by using the essential relation which exists between them. (The students are told to begin with the first sentence and incorporate the second.)

Voilà une jeune fille. La jeune fille vous cherche.	Voilà une jeune fille qui vous cherche.
Voilà la clef. La clef ouvre cette porte.	Voilà la clef qui ouvre cette porte.
Donnez-moi le livre. Il est sur le bureau.	Donnez-moi le livre qui est sur le bureau.
Elle parle au monsieur. Le monsieur vient d'arriver.	Elle parle au monsieur qui vient d'arriver.

After several sentences of this type have been given, and the essential relationships seem clear, it is possible to go on to other sentences which require rearranging words: for example,

Ce monsieur vient d'arriver. Ce monsieur est mon père.	Ce monsieur qui vient d'arriver est mon père.

New sentences can now be introduced to show the kind of relationship which require *que:* for example,

Voilà un jeune homme. J'ai invité le jeune homme.	Voilà le jeune homme que j'ai invité.
Paul vient d'arriver. Vous connaissez Paul.	Paul, que vous connaissez, vient d'arriver.

Examples of Classroom Drills (Pattern Practices)[1]

Various types of drills can be used to increase the students' fluency in handling basic patterns, and to test their understanding. These drills should have a purpose which the teacher has clearly in mind, and which becomes readily apparent to the students. Practices should be thorough and varied, the utterances as natural as possible, the sentences complete and plausible. Since fluency is the main objective, care must be taken to increase the difficulty very gradually. If a student does not know an answer immediately, it should be furnished to him so that he can repeat the pattern rather than "figure it out."

There are many possible kinds of pattern practices. We can give only a few illustrations.

Substitution Drills: In a substitution drill, the teacher gives a pattern sentence which the class repeats. The teacher then gives a word which can be substituted for only one word in the original sentence.

Example: *from English*

He saw his friend.

aunt	He saw his aunt.
car	He saw his car.

This is the simplest form of substitution drill, but the number of terms to be substituted can be increased, and can be correlated with other necessary changes.

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[1]This section of the report is for the most part inspired by or taken directly from the publications of the Foreign Service Institute of the Department of State, Washington, D.C., especially from the preliminary draft of *The Intensive Method at FSI,* "Chapter IV: Drills," and from *Spanish, Basic Course.*

Example: *from Russian*

Skol'ko vam liet? (How old are you?)	
Mnie tri góda. (I am three years old.)	Mnie tri góda.
piat' (five)	Mnie piat' liet.
diesiat' (ten)	Mnie diesiat' liet.
dva (two)	Mnie dva góda.
sórok dva (forty-two)	Mnie sórok dva góda.
dvadtsat' tri (twenty-three)	Mnie dvadtsat' tri góda.
sórok vósiem' (forty-eight)	Mnie sórok vósiem' liet.

Example: *from English*

John left before I saw him.	
Mary	Mary left before I saw her.
Joe and Bill	Joe and Bill left before I saw them.
you	You left before I saw you.

In the following drill, the teacher gives a verb which he uses in several short sentences. The students repeat these basic sentences. Then the teacher gives another verb which the students substitute in sentences similar to the basic ones. (Note the great importance of intonation in a drill of this kind.)

Example: *from French*

partir. Je pars. Pourquoi partir? Oh, ne partez pas! Moi, je ne pars pas.	Je pars. Pourquoi partir? Oh, ne partez pas! Moi, je ne pars pas.
attendre	J'attends. Pourquoi attendre? Oh, n'attendez pas! Moi, je n'attends pas.

A special kind of substitution drill is the "progressive" type.

Example: *from Spanish*

Está trabajando como secretaria.	
ustedes	Está trabajando como ustedes.
con	Está trabajando con ustedes.
hablando	Está hablando con ustedes.
estoy	Estoy hablando con ustedes.
de	Estoy hablando de ustedes.
sus vecinos	Estoy hablando de sus vecinos.

Response Drills: This term is applied specifically to drills in which the student is expected to respond to a given sentence by another appropriate one. Most such drills are question-and-answer drills. If a language has special "short" answers to question of the yes-or-no or either-or variety, drills like the following are especially valuable.

Example: *from English*

Do you want to go there now?	Yes, I do. (No, I don't.)
Is she going with you?	Yes, she is. (No, she isn't.)
Can you get in touch with him?	Yes, I can. (No, I can't.)

Example: *from Spanish*

¿Tiene un billete o una moneda?	[Tengo] una moneda.
¿Está en el comedor o en la sala?	[Está] en la sala.

Other kinds of response drills can include command-and-reply, completion drills, enumeration drills, games, number drills, etc. In teaching numbers, for instance, simple problems in arithmetic can be given, but it is essential that the answer be so obvious as to present only a vocabulary problem.

Example: *from German*

Neun	Drei mal Drei
	Sechs und Drei
	Zwei und Sieben

Expansion Drills: The teacher gives a sentence, and then a word which the students must add to the pattern sentence.

Example: *from German*

Ich kaufe mir einen Hut.	
morgen	Morgen kaufe ich mir einen Hut.
Er wohnt in Berlin.	
jetzt	Jetzt wohnt er in Berlin.

Transformation Drills: Here the pattern sentence is changed from one grammatical or lexical category to another, e.g., singular to plural, present to future, first person to third person, etc.

Example: *from Latin*

Volō tē fortūnam timēre.	Fortūnam timē!
Volō vōs fortūnam timēre.	Fortūnam timēte!
Volō tē malum fugere.	Malum fuge!
Volō vōs malum fugere.	Malum fugite!
Volō tē Deō servīre.	Deō servī!
Volō vōs Deō servīre.	Deō servīte!

Example: *from German*

Sie singt sehr schön.	Sie kann sehr schön singen.
Er trinkt sehr viel Bier.	Er kann sehr viel Bier trinken.
Er kommt erst morgen.	Er kann erst morgen kommen.

In classroom pattern practices, every attempt should be made to avoid the students' mother tongue. (There may be occasions, of course, when it will be better to translate a word than to interrupt the drill by a lengthy attempt

to make the meaning of the word clear without translation.) It is usually possible to give directions in the language being taught, and to explain the procedure by examples. If procedures for various types of drills are standardized, moreover, they become familiar to the students and require a minimum of preliminary instructions.

Latin

The problems presented by the teaching of the classical languages are different from those presented by the modern languages in so far as the students will not be called upon to speak Latin or Greek.

Latin, however, like the modern languages, has a structure, and it is possible to teach the production as well as the recognition of various features of this structure through exercises similar to those discussed above. The approach to these exercises will be somewhat different from that used in the case of spoken modern languages, the student having a written text before him at the start.

Conclusion

The Committee recommends that modern languages be taught by the use of the language itself, in such a way that its structure will not only be clear to the student, but will become a part of the student's habits. The approach should be primarily oral, then written. There should be as little talk as possible *about* language. This can be eliminated almost entirely by carefully constructed drills, and by having comprehension tested through questions and exercises in the language being taught, rather than by translation.

The patterns given in this report are not necessarily the best possible examples. They are meant merely to serve as a clue to what can be done. Each teacher will undoubtedly be able to develop his own highly effective examples, exercises, and drills to illustrate points of structure, and to increase the students' fluency in their use. The class situation will have a distinct bearing on the choice which the teacher has to make, for he will have to consider such things as his students' maturity, interests, and the time available for language study, as well as such factors as the text-books and readers at his disposal.

The teacher will have to solve such problems as the order in which to present various points of structure. His decision will have to take into account not only the progressive difficulty of grammatical features, but also the occasionally conflicting needs of the real-life situation in which the language is being taught. He may have to compromise between these two factors, real-life need and structural difficulty. (It will almost always be necessary, for instance, to teach the imperative form of verbs—and the response to them—before anything else, since, from the very beginning, he will want to avoid the use of the students' mother-tongue in the classroom.) At times it will be necessary to speak of a construction which students may have encountered in their reading, or may need because the text-book they are using brings it in at a particular time. The teacher will have to decide how to handle these situations as they arise, but he should always try to have the students hear, use, and see pattern sentences which illustrate a feature of the language before they have a chance to read the explanation and the "rule" for it in their text-books.

None of this is easy, but the Committee is convinced that language is a tool and a means of communication, and should be taught as such, rather than as an exercise in decoding.

That this attitude is shared by increasing numbers of people is indicated by the following announcement made this year by the College Entrance Ex-

amination Board: "A somewhat different kind of grammar question has been included recently in the French and Spanish tests. Many modern language teachers feel that the use of English should be avoided in teaching a foreign language; candidates should be familiar with patterns of the foreign language without thinking of their English equivalents . . . On this assumption the new type of question is based. It contains no English . . ."

A change of this kind, as well as the inclusion of the listening comprehension parts in the examinations for Advanced Standing, is evidence of the present trend to recognize officially what many teachers have been doing for years.

Much work is in progress which will make the task easier. It includes thorough structural analyses of the languages taught in our schools and colleges, and will make available to teachers a fund of scientific data upon which to base carefully planned courses. Meanwhile, it is possible in the framework of existing conditions, poor as these may be, to teach languages in a manner both realistic and effective.

APPENDIX C

Sample Test

Traditional textbooks, when used, can be adapted by the skillful teacher to the techniques and procedures advocated in this curriculum bulletin. For the preparation of tests of achievement at the early levels of language learning, the following procedures are recommended:

1. Do not use English except in directions. Two languages should not be mixed and scrambled in a test any more than in any other language learning exercise.

2. Vary the difficulty of the questions, putting the easier ones first.

3. Introduce problems of listening as well as reading and writing. All three may be brought into play in the same question. Many questions may be devised that require the student to listen as well as to read and write.

4. To test vocabulary, use contexts, definitions, and associations but do not ask for translations of single words.

5. When testing for knowledge of order and form, do not pose the additional problem of vocabulary; supply the needed words and ask the students to put them in their proper sequence and form.

6. When properly prepared, deleted text questions, in which the student must restore a word or expression that has been omitted from the context, are a most sensitive and dependable measuring device.

The following example will show the kind of tests which every teacher can devise. It is based on the first five lessons of Dale and Dale: *Cours Elémentaire de Français.*[1]

Announce that there will be an hour test, without any advance assignment. Indicate what materials should be reviewed, and what the nature of the questions will be. Say that the dictation will come from the first parts of Lessons IV and V, and that the other questions will come from the exercises *in which there is no English.* Have all types of questions done at least once in class before the test, so that the problem will not be one of technique. There is NO ENGLISH in this test; however, English may be used for directions.

Part I. Dictation. (Make sure that the class understands what your procedure will be. Each word will be pronounced four times, no more; the students may not ask for further repetitions. The procedure is as follows: read the whole paragraph through once, at normal speed for careful reading, while the students listen. Then read each phrase or group of words again, followed by *one* repetition, while the students write. When they have finished, reread the whole paragraph slowly while they check. Do *not* indicate the punctuation; make the separations clear by your pauses and intonations. Ask the students to put in the punctuation, but *do not mark them on this* until they are well advanced. At this point, it is difficult enough for them to get the right words in the right order and in the right form. Do not dictate the words separately but in normal word groups.)

> Le professeur dit: Où est le drapeau, Jeanne? Elle répond: Voilà le drapeau, monsieur. Le professeur demande: De quelle couleur est

[1]Second edition, D. C. Heath, 1956. This text is chosen merely because it is widely used.

la craie, Paul? Paul répond: Elle est blanche, monsieur. Le professeur dit: Est-ce que la leçon est longue ou courte, Henri? Henri répond: Elle est longue, monsieur.

Part II. Listening Comprehension. (Explain that you will read a number of simple addition problems in French and that the students are to choose the right answer from three that are suggested on the answer sheet.)

Example: Read in French: Trois et quatre font .....

The student has before him: 6 7 12.

He is to draw a circle around the right answer: 7

A - Sept et huit font .....
B - Neuf et quatre font .....
C - Dix-huit et deux font .....
D - Onze et six font .....
E - Cinq et quinze font .....
F - Seize et trois font .....

Part III. Form and position of adjectives. (Explain that you will read a sentence in French which the students will then write, adding the adjective printed on their answer sheets. Two forms of the adjective are given; they must choose the right one.)

Example: Read in French: Voilà un garçon.

The student has before him: (grand, grande)

He writes: Voilà un grand garçon.

A - Ouvrez le livre. (gris, grise)
B - Cherchez la brosse. (petit, petite)
C - Voilà les cahiers. (noir, noirs)
D - Je lis la phrase. (court, courte)
E - Où sont les garçons? (jeune, jeunes)
F - Montrez-moi la jeune fille. (joli, jolie)
G - Je m'assieds sur la chaise. (vieux, vieille)

Part IV. Pronoun substitution, affirmative. (Explain that you will read a question in French to which the students will write an answer, beginning with the word *Oui,* followed by the appropriate pronoun.)

Example: Est-ce que Jean est Américain?

The student writes: Oui, il est Américain.

A - Est-ce que le tableau est noir?
B - Est-ce que la règle est verte?
C - Est-ce que Paul et Henri sont grands?
D - Est-ce que le mur est jaune?
E - Est-ce que la fenêtre est grande?
F - Est-ce que Marie et Hélène sont ici?
G - Est-ce que le professeur est satisfait?
H - Est-ce que la jeune fille est Américaine?

Part V. Pronoun substitution, negative. (Explain that you will read a question in French to which the students will write an answer beginning with the word *Non* followed by the appropriate pronoun.)

Example: Est-ce que la règle est rouge?
The student writes: Non, elle n'est pas rouge.

A - Est-ce que le stylo est noir?
B - Est-ce que Georges et Henri sont vieux?
C - Est-ce que les fenêtres sont petites?
D - Est-ce que vous fermez la porte?
E - Est-ce que vous prenez le livre?
F - Est-ce que le dictionnaire est ici?
G - Est-ce le professeur?

Part VI. Rejoinders. (Explain that you will give a number of commands or ask questions to which the students are to reply by writing a suitable rejoinder. The rejoinder may be that the student says what he is doing or it may be an answer to your question.)

Example: The teacher says: Cherchez le livre.
The student writes: Je cherche le livre.

A - Levez-vous.
B - Ouvrez la fenêtre.
C - Comment vous appelez-vous?
D - Comment allez-vous?
E - Quel jour est-ce aujourd'hui?
F - Lisez les phrases.
G - Comprenez-vous la leçon?

Part VII. Completion exercise. (This final part is completely written. Instruct the students to fill in each blank with a form that will complete the sentence in French.)

A - Où ..... Yvonne? B - Est-elle ..... Georges et Marie? C - Vous ..... devant la classe. D - A ..... est le cahier? E - Qu'est-ce que ..... une règle? F - Est-ce que les drapeaux sont .....? G - Hélène prononce la ..... phrase. H - Le crayon est ..... le bureau. I - Le professeur est ..... le tableau. J - Nous ..... dans la salle de classe. K - Le plafond n'est ..... gris. L - Les murs ..... jaunes. M - ..... que le livre est à Louise? N - Georges et Jean ne ..... pas devant la fenêtre.

STUDENT'S COPY

Test on Lessons I - V.

Name .....
Date .....

Part I. Dictation. .....
.....
.....
.....
.....

Part II. Listening Comprehension. The teacher will read a number of simple arithmetic problems in French. Choose the answer from the three that are suggested. Indicate your choice by drawing a circle around the right number.

Example: The teacher reads: Trois et quatre font .....
Suggested answers: 6 7 12. Draw a circle around 7.

A - 10 11 15	C - 10 18 20	E - 5 10 20
B - 13 14 19	D - 16 17 18	F - 9 13 19

Part III. Form and position of adjectives. The teacher will read a sentence which you will write in French adding an adjective as indicated below.

Example: The teacher reads: Voilà un garçon.
You have your choice of two adjective forms (grand, grande). Choose the right form and write the sentence including the adjective: Voilà un grand garçon.

A - (gris, grise) .....
B - (petit, petite) .....
C - (noir, noirs) .....
D - (court, courte) .....
E - (jeune, jeunes) .....
F - (joli, jolie) .....
G - (vieux, vieille) .....

Part IV. Pronoun substitution, affirmative. The teacher will read a question in French to which you are to write an answer in French, beginning with the word *Oui,* and followed by the appropriate pronoun.

Example: The teacher reads: Est-ce que Jean est Américain?
Write: Oui, il est Américain.

A - Oui, ...	E - Oui, ...
B - Oui, ...	F - Oui, ...
C - Oui, ...	G - Oui, ...
D - Oui, ...	H - Oui, ...

Part V. Pronoun substitution, negative. The teacher reads a question as in Part IV, but this time you are to answer in the negative, beginning each answer with *Non,* followed by the right pronoun.

Example: The teacher reads: Est-ce que la règle est rouge?
Write: Non, elle n'est pas rouge.

A - Non, ...	E - Non, ...
B - Non, ...	F - Non, ...
C - Non, ...	G - Non, ...
D - Non, ...	

Part VI. Rejoinders. The teachers will give a command or ask a question in French. You are to write a suitable rejoinder in French that will say what you are doing or that will answer the question.

Example: The teachers says: Cherchez le livre.
Write: Je cherche le livre.

A - .....
B - .....
C - .....
D - .....
E - .....
F - .....
G - .....

Part VII. Completion Exercise. Fill in each blank with a form that will complete the sentence correctly in French.

A - Où ..... Yvonne? B - Est-elle ..... Georges et Marie? C - Vous ..... devant la classe. D - A ..... est le cahier? E - Qu'est-ce que ..... une règle? F - Est-ce que les drapeaux sont .....? G - Hélène prononce la ..... phrase. H - Le crayon est ..... le bureau. I - Le professeur est ..... le tableau. J - Nous ..... dans la salle de classe. K - Le plafond n'est ..... gris. L - Les murs ..... jaunes. M - ..... que le livre est à Louise? N - Georges et Jean ne ..... pas devant la fenêtre.

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Books Abroad: An International Quarterly of Comment on Foreign Books. University of Oklahoma Press, Norman, Oklahoma.

The French Review. Circulation Manager, George B. Watts, Davidson College, Davidson, North Carolina.

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Hispania: A Teachers' Journal Devoted to the Interests of the Teaching of Spanish and Portuguese. Secy.-Treas., Laurel H. Turk, DePauw University, Greencastle, Indiana.

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LATIN

INTRODUCTION

The study of Latin is an especially effective means of fulfilling the cultural and humanistic objectives of language teaching and so of furthering the liberal education of the student.[1]

The teacher of Latin has the responsibility of leading his pupils to an understanding of the language in which many of the great thoughts of literature, philosophy, religion, and science have been expressed. The way leads necessarily through a gradual development of their knowledge of the phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics of the language to an intelligent and sympathetic reading of the masterpieces of Latin literature. Along the route they should gain increased ability to use their own language through increases in vocabulary and in power of expression, for careful translation demands and improves the knowledge of both languages.

To come to an intelligent and sympathetic reading of the masterpieces of Latin literature requires a planned itinerary. The following pages indicate possible itineraries and pleasing stopovers. As for any successful journey, consideration must be given to the accommodations and comfort of the traveler, lest irritation over avoidable inconveniences blind him to the charms along the way. The proper study of Latin is Latin. Attractive side roads, tempting distractions, the mirage of progress in easy Latin, as well as genuine difficulties to be surmounted, affect the speed of the journey, but the reward is great for those who reach their goal.

The statements which follow, based on the experience of teachers in the field, may help other teachers to develop their courses in Latin. Some suggestions represent a modification of point of view rather than matters of detailed procedures; some can be used incidentally; others as preview or review.

While the textbook is an important factor in determining the sequence of material, there is ample opportunity for the teacher to use his knowledge and initiative in varying the presentation.

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[1]The members of the Advisory Committee chiefly responsible for preparing this section of the bulletin are: Josephine P. Bree, Chairman; Mary Barrett, Grace A. Crawford, Anita Flannigan, Sister Mary Sarah, Rudolph V. Oblom. They would welcome reactions and suggestions.

PHONOLOGY (THE SPOKEN LANGUAGE)

THE IMPORTANCE OF CORRECT PRONUNCIATION

Since the principal aim of the study of Latin is not oral communication, the reason for stressing correct pronunciation may not seem as obvious as in the teaching of modern foreign languages. But there are several reasons why it is desirable, necessary, and productive of efficiency.

1. Since all languages, including Latin, had their beginnings as speech, the use of speech and sound must precede and continually support the processes of reading and writing.

2. Pronouncing accurately and hearing correct pronunciation enables the student of Latin to differentiate forms and words which look similar but have different sounds and different meanings (e.g., *-is* genitive singular, third declension; *-īs* ablative plural, first and second declensions or accusative plural, third declension *i*-stems.) Since Latin is almost completely phonetic, correct pronunciation is an aid to correct spelling.

3. Accuracy in pronunciation contributes to classroom efficiency and in the end saves far more time than is spent on it in the early stages of the course. When both teacher and pupils give the same sounds to the same letters, everyone can recognize the meaning of the words and many points can be grasped by the pupils and checked by the teacher without recourse to the slower process of writing.

4. Correct oral phrasing by the teacher gives the student aid in comprehending the thought grouping of words.

5. Correct pronunciation and reading, made habitual from the first days of learning the language, are fundamental to proper reading of oratory and poetry. The eloquence of Cicero was intended to be heard and cannot be fully appreciated apart from the enjoyment of his rhythm and of his masterly use of sound; the rhythm of Virgil's poetry is completely lost without a knowledge of quantity and accent.

"CORRECT" PRONUNCIATION

1. The "correct" pronunciation for a given author or work depends upon the time in which the work was written. As modern English differs from Chaucerian and Shakespearian English, the pronunciation of Latin in the time of Caesar and Cicero differed in many respects from that used in the Middle Ages. At least three main periods of Latin pronunciation are distinguished: preclassical, classical or Roman, and Medieval or Church style.

2. No one of the three possible pronunciations is difficult. In fact, Latin is one of the easiest languages to pronounce. Once the vowel sounds and the distinction between long and short vowels and between single and double consonants have been mastered there is no problem. There are no silent letters in Latin and, with minor exceptions, there is only one sound for each consonant. Similarly, the rules for syllabication and word accent are, in classical and medieval Latin, regular and unvaried. Even the Greek names most familiar to us in English have come to us by way of Latin and follow these easy and simple rules.

3. In some countries of Europe Latin is pronounced in accordance with the phonetic laws of the native language, disregarding what is known about the ancient pronunciation, but this is not the practice in the United States.

However, Latin phrases which are used in English should be Anglicized, because they have become part of our language.

TEACHING PRONUNCIATION

The key words are *imitation* and *practice.*

1. The teacher must be the model, pronouncing all new words and, as far as possible during the early years of study, reading aloud all new material. Rules can be helpful, especially for reference later on, but what is desired is good pronunciation, not mere knowledge of rules.

2. Drills, especially those designed to contrast long and short vowel sounds or single and double consonants, should be plentiful at the start (see Section on Mechanical Aids, p. 57). Another effective means of practicing is learning songs, lines of verse, mottoes, and brief quotations. Here rhythm aids the memory of the sounds.

The increased efficiency, appreciation, and sense of accomplishment which result from gaining mastery here more than repay the time and attention given to accurate pronunciation and fluent oral reading of Latin.

MORPHOLOGY (THE SYSTEM OF INFLECTION)

The more quickly the teacher can present forms which may cause difficulty, the less likely the student is to get a false sense of achievement and to underestimate the complexity of the ordinary Latin sentence.

For example, some texts devote many chapters to simple forms, thereby delaying the introduction of more complex features of the language, where the teacher will need to spend much time. Students can make rapid progress in the earlier stages of the language before meeting difficulties which will delay them and where they inevitably will have to move more slowly.

To achieve the objective of gaining a good concept of the overall structure of Latin, it is obvious that minutiae must be subordinated to fundamental matters. This is not always easy for the beginning teacher or the teacher who has a limited acquaintance with the literature. Some elementary textbooks tend to give a distorted impression of the importance of minor items.

WORD ORDER AND INFLECTION

A fact that should be stressed early and constantly is that Latin depends on inflection, not on word order, to convey basic meaning. Many current texts give the impression that Latin has a fixed word order, knowledge of which can be a key to the understanding of the meaning of a passage. The student, used to a word order language like English, is all too ready to accept this idea, and as a result he will ignore the all-important endings. When he comes to read real Latin he realizes that endings, not a prescribed word order (subject, object, verb) are the key to meaning. Indeed, the many variations from the normal sequence of words found in abundance in the works of all Latin authors, the rhetorical effects achieved by variations in order (juxtaposition of contrasting words, alliteration, phrase rhythm, wide separation of noun and adjective to tie in a phrase) are all possible only in a highly inflected language which places little reliance on the position of the word to convey its relationship to the sentence.

IMPORTANT FORMS

To build up a correct picture of usual and idiomatic forms and constructions,

it is important to focus attention on the more frequently used forms rather than the less commonly used ones.

Frequency studies show a need to stress:

1. The third person in all tenses and conjugations of verbs (It constitutes 85% of all tense forms.)
2. Third conjugation verbs (50%)
3. Perfect tense (40%) (It is three times more frequent than the imperfect, and is the usual past tense for narration. The distinction in meaning between the imperfect and perfect tenses must be carefully established at the very beginning. It is also helpful if the student realizes that the Latin perfect is actually two tenses in one, simple past and present perfect; thus he will avoid the temptation to use only the present perfect meaning for it.)
4. Participles (An early familiarity with all four principal parts also is useful for derivation work.)
5. Infinitives
6. Subjunctives (Without these it is almost impossible to read any really idiomatic Latin.)
7. Nominative, accusative, ablative cases of nouns (85%)
8. Nouns of the third declension.
9. Combination of third declension nouns with first and second declension adjectives
10. Relative pronouns

One way to achieve greater stress on these forms is to introduce them early. When the text makes this impractical, it is well for the teacher to acquaint the student with the existence of such forms by mentioning them at an appropriate time or presenting quotations using them. Teachers should strive to reach the most important items as soon as possible by passing more lightly over items of minor importance.

LESS IMPORTANT FORMS

Among the forms which statistical studies and experience show to be less important are:

1. Locative
2. Vocative
3. Fourth declension neuter nouns
4. Infrequent combinations such as *agricola bonus*
5. One and three-ending adjectives in the third declension (which can be taught faster as variations of two-ending adjectives than as separate systems)
6. Second declension *-er* nouns (also best taught as variations of *-us* nouns)
7. Supine
8. Future tense (This occurs only 63 times in 2318 indicative forms)
9. Future perfect tense (14 times in 2318)
10. The genitive *-i* instead of *-ii*, since the latter is frequently found in the best authors.

VARIED USE AND MEANING OF FORMS

It is also valuable to avoid setting up too narrow or fixed a meaning for various forms. In fact, there are forms which should be translated only in context. Of these an outstanding example is the infinitive, which is very

frequently rendered by meaning other than "to." The imperfect may mean "used to do," "kept doing," "usually did," "tried to do" as well as "was doing" or "did." The genitive is by no means always rendered by "of" nor the dative by "to." There is wide variety possible in the rendition of subjunctive forms. If a single meaning is stressed, a student merely becomes confused when confronted with a situation where that meaning is inapplicable.

RAPID AND ACCURATE LEARNING OF MORPHOLOGY

In general, it is wise to proceed as rapidly as possible with the presentation of morphology. Any set of forms is fairly easy to learn by itself. The problems come when the student must use a new inflection in conjunction with the forms previously learned and must distinguish one form from another similar or even identical one (e.g., hab*et*, reg*et*, am*et*).

1. Most texts are so constructed that it is practical to present forms "vertically," that is, by complete declensions and conjugations. If this is done, a "horizontal" presentation offers an excellent method of review. Some teachers find it advantageous to present forms first in "horizontal" fashion. For nouns, this means a consideration of the forms of a given case in all declensions simultaneously. It directs attention to the common elements of most forms of that case and speeds recognition of these forms (e.g., the short vowel and *-m* of the accusative singular, *puellam, servum, militem, manum, rem;* the long vowel and *-s* of the accusative plural; the two types of dative and ablative plurals in *-īs* and *-bus*). Similarly with verbs, one entire tense in all conjugations may be considered and the common or contrasting features noted (the vowel in *vocat, monet, ducit, audit;* the common *-ba-* of imperfects; the *-era-* of past perfect, etc.).

If forms are first presented in this horizontal fashion, later they should certainly be arranged vertically in the traditional declension and conjugation patterns for convenience in remembering the forms of one given word or word type.

2. It is not easy for the beginning student to visualize the breakdown of the various elements in an inflected form. To help him to do this, until the analytical habit becomes fixed, it is well to make use of any graphic means available. Cards with separate elements lettered on them, which can be moved physically into correct position, or words printed at the board with new or important elements in colored chalk or large letters, *habEt, habeBAt, habeBIt, habitAt*, all these help him to distinguish the inflections and break down the habit of seeing only the initial letters of a word.

3. It is important that the student, especially the rather young and immature one, constantly realize that the complex morphological system of Latin has an essential function as a key to meaning. It is important that he see forms in a context and practise them in sentences, however brief. After the importance of inflection has been driven home to him, the learning of paradigms will appear meaningful and valuable. They will become a useful frame of reference that will keep order in this complex system. The two processes of practice in context and learning of paradigms actually are likely to be done in an interwoven fashion (presentation, practice, memorization), but care must be taken that the student is always aware of the use of the forms and does not regard them as a pattern learned in a vacuum isolated from function.

SYNTAX

WHAT TO STRESS

In the area of syntax, as in morphology, frequent and idiomatic usage should be stressed and practised as the common mode of expression. Also, those basic concepts which are most at variance with English usage but which are essential to a true picture of Latin must be stressed and practised until they become habitual to the student. A few of these are suggested below.

1. One of the most difficult matters for the student to grasp is the function of cases, a concept basic to Latin but one which has virtually disappeared in our language. If a general idea of the function of each case is presented when the case is first taken up, then, later on, the various uses of the case can be fitted into the general framework. Thus, the student will be given a better grasp than if he is simply presented with isolated instances of the use of the case. (The nominative indicates the "first party" mentioned in connection with an action; the accusative shows what is directly affected by the action or the "end of motion." The ablative shows an adverbial relationship of time, place, etc.: how? why? when? where? by what?; the dative indicates a third party indirectly affected by or interested in the action; the genitive indicates chiefly a relationship to another noun.)

2. The concept of gender is so abstract that there is a temptation to slight it at the start, but it is actually so important to understanding the more complex phases of the language that it is best introduced very early, even before its importance is wholly apparent. To grasp the fact that Latin has a grammatical as well as natural gender is difficult, but it is essential to correct interpretation or use of adjectives, pronouns, participles, and compound passive tenses.

3. English and Latin constructions are sometimes quite similar; however, it is important to make clear that they are often quite different. This is especially important in teaching such constructions as the ablative absolute, indirect statement, and purpose. Difficulty is lessened if the student realizes that meaning is rendered not by matching individual Latin and English *words* but by matching *ideas,* expressed in whole phrases or sentences.

PROCEDURES IN PRESENTATION OF NEW ITEMS

All teachers gradually develop a number of interesting, vivid methods of describing and presenting various items of syntax. Whatever is useful to students in the way of graphic illustration and mnemonic device is worthwhile, provided it is not too time-consuming or elaborate. Many of these "tricks of the trade" can be found in books on method and in the pamphlets of the Service Bureau.[1]

The direct explanation of a new point in syntax is often the best, most concise, and most economical method. There is, however, considerable value in having students see the new point in a context and work out the idea with the help of the teacher. The student will develop accurate observation if he helps locate the unfamiliar item and analyze its function. It is even useful to have a class help formulate a rule rather than merely memorize "the one in the book." Such an inductive procedure requires time and deftness in guiding the students' observations, but the challenge to thought rather than pure memory is stimulating and, since a person often remembers best when

[1]Service Bureau, American Classical League, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio.

he thinks out something for himself, the procedure is worth while at least occasionally for especially important topics.

As in working with forms, it is important not to dally on relatively simple matters, but to reach the complex constructions as soon as possible. If the textbook provides an overabundance of very simple reading practice on the early material, it is well to cut out some and move quickly through the rest. To acquaint the student with idiomatic usage and the real flavor of Latin, it is valuable to introduce even a small amount of reading and memorizing of quotations from real texts: songs, hymns, verse, etc. This contact with real Latin may ease the difficulty he experiences in advancing from elementary material to reading Latin authors. We should do as Latin does, give *multum in parvo,* not the reverse.

ORAL PRACTICE

There are many techniques, both oral and written, by which forms, syntax, and vocabulary may be practised to a high point of facility and accuracy.

1. One is rapid, informal, impromptu drill, with the teacher asking for quick reproduction of forms, words, short phrases, even short sentences related to the point being studied.

2. Another method is to use more formally organized material in the form of pattern practices which may be learned and given in direct oral response to the teacher or by the use of a tape recorder (see section on Mechanical Aids, p. 57).

Pattern practices are formalized drills designed to give practice upon one construction pattern used in a variety of ways: several adverbial uses of the ablative, ablative absolute, perfect tense, purpose constructions. The practices should be 20 to 30 sentences in length, carefully developed with a minimum of vocabulary change. If there is too wide a variation from sentence to sentence, the learning burden becomes too great for rapid memorization and, what is worse, the attention becomes focused upon words rather than structure, away from the central point of the practice. These drills may be done by giving sentences in English to be put into Latin, Latin sentences to be changed in some way, or Latin sentences to be given in English for rapid recognition of forms.

Example of a practice on the accusative (to continue for 24 sentences).

He is watching the dog.	Canem spectat.
Who is watching the dog?	Quis canem spectat?
The man is watching the dog.	Vir canem spectat.
It is the dog the man is watching.	Canem vir spectat.
It is the boy the man is watching.	Puerum vir spectat.
The man is watching the girl.	Vir puellam spectat.

Much of the work of the elementary course can be covered by the use of such practices, coordinated with the rest of the work, thoroughly learned and tested. The teacher, however, through training or independent study must be willing to experiment or use available experimental materials (see also Appendix B, Modern Languages Section, p. 24).

3. Another method of improving facility in oral comprehension is dictation. This may vary from the simple business of dictating words or short sentences in brief quizzes to dictation of paragraphs based on familiar material recombined into new sentences. The accuracy with which a student reproduces

in writing the material he hears is a means of evaluating his accuracy in hearing and writing correctly but, even more, it is a measure of his comprehension of the content and of his mastery of the language structure.

4. Oral composition is an additional tool for improving oral flexibility and for reviewing phonology, morphology, and syntax. However, since the development of skill in conversation is not a primary goal in itself, oral composition should, except in the case of a rarely gifted teacher and pupil or in very advanced work, be limited to questions and answers on familiar material. A picture in a book or, even better, projected on a screen also may be a focus for questions and answers. Action pictures are best for this purpose, but even a very simple still scene has possibilities. For example, a sad-faced woman raising her hands in prayer before the shrine of a household god can draw out such responses as these:

Quis est?	Nominative	Femina est. (Deus est. Lar est. Genius est.)
Quem videmus?	Accusative	Feminam videmus. (Deum videmus.)
Ubi est femina?	Phrases of place	Femina est in aedibus (ante aediculum).
Quando orat femina?	Time phrases	Femina mane (noctu, tertia hora, etc.) orat.
Cuius manus videmus?	Genitive	Manus feminae videmus.
Cui dicit?	Dative	Deo (lari, genio) dicit.
Quid agit femina?	Several verbs	Femina orat (dicit, implorat, rogat).

This procedure can be used not only to elicit vocabulary items as responses from the students but, by careful phrasing of the questions, it can call for answers using a variety of inflected forms (cases, tenses, etc.).

Similarly questions based on a story the class has read can be used to elicit not merely phrases from the Latin of the text but answers requiring a varied use of forms. While practice of this sort builds up a mastery of forms and syntax, it should not be allowed to become too time-consuming and careful preparation must be made so as to avoid errors in idiom and construction. The aim of such work is vitiated if pupils are allowed to use English-like constructions in lieu of idiomatic Latin.

WRITING

The writing of Latin reinforces the students' understanding of Latin forms, idioms, and syntax.

Translation into Latin: The effort made to transfer an English idea or sentence into the idiom of Latin brings out clearly the unique qualities of each language.

In the early years this method of gaining understanding and perspective should be restricted to rendering simple English sentences into Latin. These sentences should be limited in vocabulary, scope, and difficulty and should be connected with the forms or structure being studied. Increase in complexity needs to be approached gradually.

Since all but the ablest students find this type of work difficult, it is well for the teacher to give some assistance. This may be done by calling for an oral description of the contemplated Latin constructions prior to the writing. Such an analysis will break down the process of translation into steps and

may reveal weaknesses in understanding of structure or knowledge of forms.

When the various forms and constructions have been previously determined in oral work, the writing of Latin sentences becomes more a test of the mastery of constructions than a practice to attain mastery, a stage at which fumbling and error may impede rather than assist the learning process.

Composing Latin: Practice in composing Latin can be done in ways other than translation—ways which will stimulate the student and enable him to write correctly.

Latin sentences composed on the basis of models are likely to produce practice in correct usage. The Latin model sentence may be converted from active to passive, part or all may be changed from singular to plural, a direct statement may be revised to an indirect one. Adjective modifiers or adverb phrases may be added to simple sentences. Variant but nearly equivalent ways of expressing the same idea may be substituted one for the other.

In more advanced work, the student should be able to summarize or paraphrase a Latin paragraph in simpler Latin if the material is already familiar to him. The teacher should, of course, insist on the correct use of idiom in the student's Latin précis.

Free composition in Latin using a limited, familiar vocabulary and specific subjects already studied may be successful under the guidance of a skillful teacher. In general, "original" composition is not advisable until later years.

The teacher must, however, guard against too much spoonfeeding and try to encourage independence in the student while keeping him firmly in the path of correct construction and idiom.

VOCABULARY

Emphasis on a good fundamental vocabulary is very important in teaching Latin. The achievement of the goal of intelligent reading in Latin depends in large measure upon the stock of words at the command of the pupil as well as on the mastery of morphology and syntax. Such command can be acquired only by constant attention to vocabulary by teacher and pupil throughout the high-school course.

CONTENT

The content of vocabulary for any year is necessarily dictated by the text in current use and by the reading planned for subsequent years. Nevertheless, in actual teaching and in planning for future reading, it is well to have some idea of word frequency in Latin literature. According to a statistical study, 1500 words account for 85% of the running words. This announcement is impressive; one should know these words well. However, the fact remains that in a page of 300 words, 45 would have to be looked up. Of course, in a well-known author and a set block of reading, provision can be made for the remaining needs by drawing up a supplementary list of words useful for that particular reading. Even so, it would seem logical to teach students an approach to vocabulary learning designed to free them to some extent from constant recourse to the dictionary.

1. In the early stages of training, the teacher should seek to establish correct attitudes about vocabulary. One must beware of assuming that there always exists a one-to-one equivalency of Latin to English words and realize that the meaning of words in both languages varies according to context. A word has an area of meaning which seldom totally corresponds to the area

of meaning in another language. For example, *tempus* has some of the meanings expressed by *time*, but it also has other meanings. Conversely, *time* has some connotations not expressed by *tempus*.

Tempus and *time* both may mean
- period of time
- general concept of time
- seasons
- opportune moment
- the "times."

Tempus also means
- tense
- temple of head
- necessity
- extremity.

Time also means
- leisure (L. otium)
- age (L. aetas)
- hour (L. hora)
- for a long time (L. diu)
- number of occasions (L. ter).

2. It is advisable to gather the new words into lists with as complete information as possible on the inflectional forms, principal parts and so forth. This is necessary so that the student may keep track of the words he is required to know; it is psychologically sound since the fact that the student has written out the list in his own notebook gives it a personal value. Overemphasis on drill of such lists is to be avoided; time is better spent in more extensive reading so as to meet the words in context, thus giving the meaning breadth and depth in the pupil's mind. It is important to stress the knowledge of the inflectional information on the word, and the basic meaning from which other meanings derive. It is interesting to review words by natural types of association, e.g., parts of the body, colors, names of animals, items of soldiers' equipment, verbs of motion, compounds of simple verbs, words closely related in idea but not exact synonyms, and words that offer spelling problems.

3. In the later stages of vocabulary study, lists continue to be useful as time-savers, for rapidity in reference, and for convenience in review, provided that the pupils keep in mind the principles mentioned above and do not lapse into a one-to-one equivalency attitude. Interest in word-building should be stimulated by constant emphasis on the basic meaning of words, by association of words of related meaning, and by deduction of the meaning of new words.

DERIVATIVES

Formal work on derivatives, both Latin and English, should be initiated as soon as possible in the first year, since the ability to determine the meaning of unfamiliar Latin and English words is recognized as one of the important results of the study of Latin in all stages of high-school work. This ability is not an automatic transfer from daily exposure to Latin words. Formal presentation is just as important here as in other phases of language teaching; casual reference to derivatives does not suffice. One and then another method of word formation should be stressed until several of the various ways of forming new words have been taught and a "do-it-yourself" kit for word-building has been provided.

The points to be thus emphasized in word study should include the following: the chief Latin prefixes and their assimilated forms, the chief Latin

suffixes and the usual English modifications, the important stems (those with many derivatives), the relation of the above-mentioned elements, the simple ending changes in the transfer from Latin to English, the common internal changes, especially those of vowels, the significance of suffixes as determinants of parts of speech, the main directions of semantic change, i.e., from specific to general and vice versa, the difference between loan, cognate, and derivative words, and finally, the Latin abbreviations in common use.

READING

TECHNIQUES

Skill in reading does not develop automatically. It is the product in large part of careful grounding in morphology, syntax, and vocabulary, but it also requires the development of a technique suited to the peculiarities of a highly inflected language. Probably nowhere else can the skillful teacher be of more assistance to the student than in aiding him in the rapid and sound development of such a technique.

The stages in reading are four:

1. **Analysis.** The student should develop from the start the habit of reading a sentence in the order in which the Latin is written, but with careful observation of inflection so as to see the relationships of the words and thus arrive at the correct meaning.

Too hasty an approach (sometimes a fault of the so-called "reading method") without also looking at the sentence analytically leads to vagueness and inaccuracy. Students tend to jump to conclusions based wholly upon the lexical meaning of the words, and then to twist the meaning of the Latin to what they think it should be. Errors also arise from the conception that word order must somehow of itself reveal meaning.

To analyze out of the Latin word order (sometimes a fault of the older "grammar method") can lead to an equally harmful "hunt and peck" procedure of trying to locate subject, verb, object. In working with longer sentences this approach invariably results in overlooking key words which relate the various parts of the sentence to one another.

The student, then, must be trained to read in the Latin word order, but analytically, interpreting the word relationships as he goes along. Such analysis may be facilitated in several ways:

a. The teacher reads a passage aloud, phrasing the words in thought groups.

b. These thought groups are set out on separate lines or on typed sheets, or on filmstrip.[1]

c. The sentence is diagrammed, especially if it is a very complex one.

d. An analysis of inflection without specific reference to meaning is made.

2. **Comprehension.** The sense of the sentence should result from mentally combining this sort of analysis with the lexical meaning of the words.

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[1]Example of thought-group arrangement of lines:

Arma virumque cano
Troiae
qui primus ab oris
Italiam
fato profugus
Laviniaque venit litora
multum
ille et terris iactatus et alto
vi superum
saevae memorem Iunonis ob iram . . .

3. **Discussion of the Meaning.** This comprehended meaning can be indicated by:

a. Questions and answers in English.

b. Questions and answers in Latin. The type of question that can be answered by copying phrases from the passage should be avoided. Skilful questions require answers that show an understanding of the whole passage.

c. Explanation in the student's own words of the thought of a phrase, sentence, or paragraph.

d. Paraphrasing or a rough preliminary translation. In this stage broken English should be avoided in favor of explanatory phrases.

One or more of these procedures may be sufficient for covering a considerable amount of reading material. However, none of them should be mistaken for or constantly substituted for effective expression of a passage in English.

4. **Formal Translation or Rendition.** For the most part translation should be oral rather than written. This focuses attention on the Latin text rather than upon a prepared piece of English writing and requires personal recall of the meaning of the passage. Attention should be given to the relationship of sentences to the total paragraph or passage, and to the use of good English.

Written translation may occasionally serve several purposes, including minor ones such as a check on preparation in the form of a written version prepared out of class or a translation written in a class period as a checkup on completeness of oral preparation. If students find difficulty in organizing a very complex sentence, writing it down may help them to keep track of the thought.

The chief purpose of written translation should probably be to produce a polished rendition. This, too, may vary from simple prose, following the text as closely as possible while still being effective English, to some degree of freedom in verse rendering of Latin poetry. Such a process, ventured upon occasionally, should reveal to students the creative and artistic possibilities inherent in good translation.

READING CONTENT

Latin I: At the outset of Latin I an important problem arises: how far to work with isolated sentences and how far with material connected in thought. The tendency of present day texts is to provide some of each, using short connected paragraphs from the earliest lessons. These are of necessity extremely simple in content because of the very limited vocabulary and syntax, and in reality little superior to the isolated sentences.

Isolated sentences are perhaps the most useful medium for giving rapid practice on forms and syntax. Also, isolated sentences quoted from ancient authors which say something worthwhile have a real value: they are worth learning and high-school pupils like "moral" proverbs.

There is also considerable value in short paragraphs describing an action scene in a picture with questions and answers based on it. These can be an improvement over the paragraph which cannot yet attain the status of an anecdote or story because of the severe limitations of form and content.

The value of narrative interest in stimulating pupils is indisputable and should be made use of as early as possible. The fascination of a new language can sustain pupil interest for a while, but, after the first month or so, the interest created by reading a story is needed.

Naturally, teachers are basically limited to the vocabulary and syntax of

their first-year text. To go far afield can be inefficient and slow up progress in learning the language. Even so, the teacher can reinforce the work in grammar with supplementary reading, especially if the text provides little connected material. For this purpose a variety of small readers is available, graded to various stages of Latin I.

Latin II: (First part of second year or end of first year for rapid classes). While wrestling with the problems of review of morphology and syntax, and the varying rates of pupils' ability to recall, reading can be especially valuable in Latin II, and extra rapid reading can be a real aid to regaining flexibility. Readers suitable for the first year can be used for this purpose and rapid progress can be made toward use of forms and syntax commonly taught in the first part of the second year.

The second year of Latin becomes, if not at its inception at least by the second half, a time of learning to read more complex and more mature material. Also, a greater quantity of materials should be read. One of the most discussed problems in all Latin teaching is *what* to read at this critical point.

CAESAR: There are many protagonists and antagonists to the use of Caesar. Here are some arguments, pro and con, with suggested alternatives.

1. *Objections:* Among the objections to Caesar, cited perhaps more often by the layman than the classicist, are these:

a. Subject matter. The detailed content of military memoirs lacks variety and the type of narrative interest which appeals to young people and motivates their interest in reading. The type of book used in the English curriculum, classics of good quality but appealing to youth, should be used. Able students may be lost to further Latin study by lack of interest in the material read.

b. Style. The style of Caesar is terse, condensed, packed with material. This makes for slow and heavy going at times.

c. Ideas. The question is raised whether a military dictator should be presented in an heroic light to American youth.

d. Relationship to Latin literature as a whole. The concentration at an early stage in the introductory course on one writer leaves the student who may not continue the study of Latin with no perspective on the scope and content of the literature.

2. *Arguments in Favor:* In reply, many advocates of Caesar who teach it successfully argue as follows:

a. Subject Matter. Appropriate selections from the *Gallic Wars* interest students: incidents revealing human nature and personality (Orgetorix, the schemer; Ariovistus, the arrogant forerunner of Hitler; Vercingetorix, the heroic, rebel youth); the customs of the Gauls; early knowledge of Britain and Germany. Stress can be placed less on the military and more on the geography, history, population movements that precede settled community life. There is a challenge to adult reading; students like the parallels to battles of the two World Wars.

b. Style. There is uniformity of style, and, what is most valuable to students trying to master reading techniques, a limited range of vocabulary. There is a sense of order and continuity in reading one author.

c. Ideas. The military need not be idealized, but Caesar's military and administrative genius cannot be denied. Stress may be placed on the character of Caesar as a wily politician and propagandist.

d. Relationship to Latin Literature as a Whole. If the class begins Caesar

in the second half of the year, there is not so much need for variety as if the work occupied a full year. It is possible to give an idea of Roman literature as a whole by other means, such as outside reading and reports.

ALTERNATIVES. Many teachers have a strong objection to the alternatives that have so far been offered to reading Caesar. Some have found greater difficulty in using a variety of authors with varied styles and vocabulary and without continuity in the material. To them the difficulties outweigh the gain in interesting subject matter, variety, or view of the literature as a whole.

For those who feel the objections to Caesar outweigh the gains and wish to use other more varied material, interesting to adolescents, there are available such texts as:

1. Medieval tales. These are especially useful for slower or less mature students.

2. Selections from a wide variety of authors, including some poetry. Care must be exercised that these are within the range of the students' powers.

3. Selections from prose authors focused on one broad topic such as Roman history, e.g., Nepos: *Hannibal* or *Atticus.*

Latin III: In developing ability to comprehend Latin and to translate it into good English, continued reading of Latin authors of stylistic power is imperative. Cicero usually furnishes the basic work for Latin III because of the wide variety in his works.

The orations *In Catilinam* and *Pro Lege Maniliana* are among those selections commonly read for clarity of thought and expression which also show the lawyer and statesman in action. The *Pro Archia* furnishes variety and shows Cicero's admiration for the liberal arts.

The letters reveal Cicero, the man, in relation to his family, his friends, his political associates and rivals. However, students need so much help in the familiar style of the letters that they sometimes enjoy them less than the orations.

Edited selections from *De Senectute* and *De Amicitia* introduce the student to the philosophical thought of Cicero, while for better students these essays *in toto* furnish a definite challenge.

For contrast and comparison with Cicero in style and point of view, the teacher may want to include Pliny's letters, Nepos' biography of Atticus and Sallust's *Catiline.*

Some teachers like to read selections from Ovid's *Metamorphoses* to encourage an interest in Latin poetry and mythology.

Latin IV: The fourth year is ordinarily devoted to reading Latin poetry. Virgil's *Aeneid* may be and often is used for the entire year, as the interest of the student is easily maintained by the sweep of the narrative and the background of legend and mythology. The student should then read a minimum of four books thoroughly, plus one at sight, and a resume of those omitted in order to understand the scope of the narrative of Books I through XII. He should have an appreciation of the epic features of the poem, the common figures of speech as well as an ability to read the dactylic hexameter accurately, smoothly, and with expression.

English translations of the *Iliad,* the *Odyssey,* Greek tragedies, and Dante's *Inferno* are good for collateral reading outside of class.

Many teachers like to read selections from Ovid's *Metamorphoses* at the

beginning of the year to introduce the student to Latin hexameter; some prefer to read selections from Ovid more rapidly at the end of the year, and if time allows, introduce the student to other Latin poets.

TESTING

AIMS OF TESTING

Testing on the secondary-school level is not merely a means of measuring achievement but also of diagnosing difficulties and remedying them.

Oral Tests: In oral testing for such items as pronunciation, vocabulary, and forms, the value of immediate diagnosis and correction is evident and time is saved. Oral reading with correct phrasing and expression is an indication of comprehension and appreciation of prose and poetry.

Written Tests: These are even more valuable for diagnosis and correction of errors. If possible, test questions should be discussed as soon as papers are collected so that errors may be noted by the student at once. Corrected papers should be returned as soon as possible. However, it is always well to discuss the more common errors before the papers are actually returned as the pupils have a tendency to focus their attention on the test marks rather than upon the correction of errors.

A written correction of errors is extremely important. This correction may be made on the test paper itself, which is then returned to the teacher for rechecking, or in the pupil's notebook.

Written tests provide a stimulus for review and encourage the pupil to his best effort.

FREQUENCY OF TESTS

Frequency of evaluation will depend upon the material to be tested and the level of the class. In the early stages, a program of frequent, even daily, short oral or written quizzes on vocabulary, forms, and syntax, followed by a longer written test to include reading at the end of each unit of work (2-3 weeks) seems to give good results.

In the third and fourth years, testing may safely be conducted at intervals of as long as three weeks. However, in the third year it is a good idea to give a short reading comprehension test or some type of vocabulary review quiz once a week, if time permits.

TYPES OF TESTS

The type of test given will also vary according to the aim of the test and the type of achievement to be evaluated.

Vocabulary: Straight recall tests, oral or written are useful to help establish in the pupil's mind the necessity of learning the important new words thoroughly. It is economical and meaningful to test vocabulary for each lesson in connection with comprehension work or grammar quizzes (e.g., by dictating sentences using both new words and new constructions).

By the end of the first year, when enough words have been studied to make such procedures possible, recall of previously learned words can be checked along with new vocabulary in various ways, e.g., by asking for words of the same category, by asking for words of similar or opposite meaning, for words related by derivation, for compounds of verbs, etc. When the

uses of the common suffixes have been studied, the vocabulary test, oral or written, might include recognition of new words containing these suffixes.

In the third and fourth year work a vocabulary review from time to time might be followed by a teacher-administered "spell-down" type of oral test or by pupil-constructed and administered tests of the multiple-choice type.

On the whole it is well to recognize the need for a large vocabulary for recognition and a smaller core of vocabulary for instant and accurate recall and to organize the vocabulary tests with this idea in mind.

Morphology and Syntax: Grammar quizzes should be focused on the point being studied, but not in isolation from others from which it must be distinguished and differentiated. (Any test, for example, on accusative of limit of motion should include one or two datives of indirect object; a test on subjunctive clauses of purpose, at least one negative clause of result.)

Knowledge of grammatical constructions may be tested by having pupils fill in blanks in short Latin sentences, by having phrases underlined in short English sentences translated into Latin, by substituting one construction for another, (e.g., a gerundive phrase for subjunctive clause of purpose), by choosing the correct construction from among several, and by asking for the syntax of constructions underlined in Latin sentences or for the location of examples of certain uses in a Latin passage.

Inflectional forms should generally be tested in connection with the constructions in which they are used. However, some teachers find it useful from time to time to evaluate knowledge of forms by having pupils decline a noun or give a verb synopsis. (For oral tape tests see the section on Mechanical Aids, p. 57).

Translation and Comprehension: All tests to determine reading ability, whether for translation or comprehension on any level, should be at sight. A test on assigned reading may be valuable for other purposes but it is not a test of *ability* to read. On the lower level it is often more economical and more satisfactory to give reading tests for comprehension rather than for translation. Since it is difficult to find passages for comprehension in the early stages, the teacher may find it necessary to prepare short paragraphs based on the text he is using. In composing such a test it is important to make sure that the questions are not always in the same order or in the same wording as in the reading.

Comprehension may also be tested by dictation. The correct writing of Latin at dictation is not only a check on a student's accuracy in hearing and spelling but a measure of his understanding of what he has heard and written and of his mastery of the language structure. A set of sentences or a connected passage that has been dictated may also serve as a basis for a translation test.

All sight passages, whether for translation or comprehension, should be clear in themselves or so prefaced that the context is clear. There are excellent collections of prose passages for sight reading and comprehension available for all levels beyond the first year. Poetry passages as well as prose can be found in the review books published by various companies. Teachers may sometimes prefer to formulate their own questions on these passages.

As the pupil progresses in Latin III and Latin IV, his reading tests should be more often in the nature of a sight translation with increased emphasis on English wording, construction, and even style.

General Review Tests: The tests so far discussed have been those for specific purposes to evaluate mastery of vocabulary, grammar, or reading comprehension. The teacher will want to give a more general type of test at

the end of certain units of work. Some first, second, and third year texts now have accompanying books with tests scheduled for each unit of work. In the later years the student should be introduced to the type of test which he might meet at the college level. He should be able to recognize and explain classical and mythological allusions in English poetry or prose, to recognize figures of speech and to explain their effect, to evaluate critically passages of literature and to write a finished translation.

Midyear and final examinations for average students in the early years should consist of types of questions with which the pupil has already become familiar. Since these examinations are chiefly for evaluation purposes, innovations would defeat their aim. These tests should be designed to show the student's overall grasp of the language and mastery of the most important items stressed during the year. It is a good rule to be sure you teach what you test and test what you teach.

The teacher may wish once a year to give a standardized test so that pupils may compare their scores with norms or to have some of the better pupils enter national or regional competitive examinations. Such competition can provide a powerful stimulus to learning.

CURRICULUM SUGGESTIONS FOR A FOUR-YEAR SEQUENCE

FIRST TWO OR THREE SEMESTERS

(It may be possible for the very able or mature student to cover this material in Grade 9 or it may occupy all of the time in Grades 7 and 8.)

1. Overall view of the structure of the language and accurate knowledge of the most frequently used inflections and constructions.

2. Mastery of basic vocabulary of approximately 500-1000 words.

3. Knowledge of the formation and use of derivatives, touching on such items as prefixes, suffixes, and stem changes.

4. Skill in pronouncing Latin accurately and in reading aloud with some sense of word groups.

5. Ability to write in idiomatic Latin short simple sentences based on familiar material.

6. Facility in reading Latin prose, simple and graded, yet maintaining the idiomatic style of the language.

7. An acquaintance with Roman life and traditions, legends and myths, through reading in Latin and English and judicious use of slides, films, and filmstrips. This should not be done at the expense of learning the language itself.

THIRD AND/OR FOURTH SEMESTERS

1. Review of and acquisition of increased facility in the basic features of the language by oral and written practice. Attention to more complex constructions as they occur in the reading.

2. Increased command of vocabulary (1000-1500 words) with special attention to the recognition of a large number of words in a reading context.

3. Continued study of derivatives based on the expanding vocabulary.

4. Constant practice in reading aloud, with increasing ability to phrase sentences in correct thought units.

5. Practice in writing Latin sentences of increasing difficulty and for the very able students, some connected writing based on the reading material.

6. Greater speed and facility in reading. No later than the end of the third semester students should begin reading prose writers of recognized worth. The amount read will vary with the ability of the students. Along with accurate translation of prepared passages, sight translation and reading for comprehension should be done.

7. Introduction to Roman history, politics and personalities through Latin reading supplemented by other resources.

FIFTH AND SIXTH SEMESTERS

1. Review of the principles of grammar with the addition of more complex constructions as required by the reading. Knowledge of the structure of Latin should enable the student to understand the structure of English and to use his native language with greater accuracy.

2. Addition of at least 500 words with emphasis on the etymological relationships of Latin words, on the varied meanings inherent in individual

words and on the development of abstract terms.

3. Word derivation expanded to include a study of word families in English, of Latin expressions and derivations which are used in English in law and medicine, and of derivatives which have come into English by way of other languages.

4. An appreciation of the effectiveness of the rhetorical devices used by the great orators and writers of Rome.

5. Ability to write connected passages with some degree of skill to reinforce the realization that Latin writing deals with the expression of ideas rather than with isolated phrases and also to increase the appreciation of an author's style.

6. Reading (in difficulty and amount approximating that of six orations of Cicero) to attain facility and depth of comprehension. Constant attention to sight translation and occasional writing of polished English versions.

7. An understanding of the political and social problems of the Romans and their attitude toward those problems. A realization of their resemblances to the issues of our own times.

SEVENTH AND EIGHTH SEMESTERS

1. Review of basic morphology and syntax supplemented by a study of poetic forms and usage including those resulting from Greek influence.

2. Increase in quantity (by about 500 words) and in depth of reading vocabulary. An appreciation of the metaphorical use of language.

3. Continuation of the work in derivation begun in the third year.

4. Study of metrics and practice in reading Latin poetry orally to develop an appreciation of its beauty.

5. Written work in Latin at the discretion of the teacher.

6. Reading of Latin poetry equivalent in amount to five books of Virgil's *Aeneid*. An acquaintance with the ideals, ethics, and aesthetics of the Romans which Virgil has immortalized. Sight reading with increasing command and pleasure. Possibly verse translations by gifted students.

7. Some concept of the scope of Latin literature and the cultural heritage derived from the Romans.

ADVANCED STANDING

For advanced standing the reading should include "a substantial amount of prose at a level of difficulty comparable to that of the philosophical works of Cicero, the writings of Livy and Tacitus, a Latin comedy, and a substantial amount of the poetry of Horace and Catullus."[1]

[1]College Entrance Examination Board, *Advanced Placement Program*, 1956, p. 60.

APPENDIX

Mechanical Aids

It is quite generally agreed that mechanical aids hold a definite place in all language teaching. The teacher must give considerable thought to the preparation and manipulation of such material and be fully aware of the goals he wishes to reach so that these aids do not become merely time-consuming gadgets.

The introduction of mechanical aids into classroom practice should be gradual rather than wholesale, with limited attainable objectives. This will prevent discouragement on account of the time involved in the preparation. It would be unfortunate, because of undue haste in its adoption, to abandon a technique that can have genuinely supporting and stimulating values.

USES

There are certain simple uses to which recordings may be put regardless of the sequence of topics imposed by the textbook and the general approach to language teaching that the instructor may take.

1. **Pronunciation Practice.** All teachers are faced with the problem of developing in the student a reasonably accurate pronunciation of Latin and of impressing on him its importance. Training in pronunciation by mechanical aids may be undertaken in two ways. The first is to give the students practice with the words and reading in each lesson by imitation. The words for the next day's lesson may be recorded by the teacher in advance and a few minutes set aside at the end of the period for practice in which the words are presented with a pause after each word during which the class may repeat it in unison. If greater attention to individual effort is desired, the teacher may call on several students to repeat the word or words after hearing the recorded version. Time can be saved by giving this practice as an outside assignment.

A second method of teaching pronunciation is to focus the student's attention on the quality and quantity of vowels which occur frequently in inflectional endings, and on diphthongs and consonants which differ in sound from their English graphic equivalents. In this approach graded drills may be developed that will enable the student to identify sounds and then to distinguish between long and short vowels. During drills of this sort the student should have a written version before him. A few samples of drill are:

a. Short i	agricola	duxit	id	it	pellit
b. Long i	bellīs	tuīs	mīles	audīs	vīs
c. Differentiate	is	hic	īdem	ignis	collīs
long from short	īs	hīc	idem	ignīs	collis

d. The same as above with macrons not indicated on the written version. The student marks the macrons after hearing the sounds.

e. After the other vowels have been treated in similar fashion, drills may include practice on all vowels, e.g., conspectus femina
conspectus (ū) femina (ā)

f. Practice on more complex series, e.g., distinguishing between diphthongs and some short vowels:

fīliae	pauca	et	at	omnis
fīlii	paucae	at	ut	amnis

Exercises of the type indicated above form a sound basis for teaching the student to read individual words accurately and to develop skill in taking dictation which may, in turn, be used as a means of testing. Of prime importance is the consideration that, by the use of tapes, objective tests of the student's ability to recognize and produce characteristic Latin sounds are easy to make and practical to administer with resultant efficiency in the use of classroom time.

2. **Listening and Reading.** Further training in listening may be provided by having the student hear recorded passages properly phrased as an aid to comprehension; he may also be required to read aloud along with the recorded voice. Being thus forced to proceed at the tempo of the tape, the student is led to overcome the tendency to read word by word with unnatural pauses.

3. **Drill in Form and Usage.** In addition to being a useful approach to pronunciation and oral reading, recorded material can also assist the teacher by providing additional drills on forms and usage. This is particularly useful in basic work where constant and varied practice is essential for the student to learn and to use forms with ease and accuracy. The central features of recorded drills for oral work are (1) the statement of the problem for the student, followed by (2) a pause of limited length during which the student attempts to give the correct answer before (3) the correct answer is given on the tape. The following are a few indications of the variety of oral drills that may be adapted to use on tape, for outside preparation and class recitation.

a. Changing verb forms from active to passive in a given tense:

Tape	*Pause*	*Tape*
spectat	student answer	spectātur

b. Changing verbs from active to passive in a series of tenses:

videt	student answer	vidētur
vidēbat	student answer	vidēbātur

c. Changing nouns from singular to plural or vice versa:

rēgis	student answer	rēgum

d. Providing the required case and number for a series of nouns as a review:

amīcus- acc. pl.	student answer	amīcōs

e. Providing correct sentences; requiring students to make additions:

Amīcum vidēmus.
Change to read:

We see his friend.	student answer	Amīcum eius vidēmus.

Amīcōs vident.
Change to read:

They see their friends.	student answer	Amīcōs suōs vident.

The above samples are only a few of those possible for oral drill. The number done in one exercise should not exceed what can be covered in about three minutes. Such oral recitations can also be graded as the pupils recite in turn, if the teacher so desires.

The same exercises may be varied so as to admit their use as written checks. The problem is presented; a pause follows during which the student writes the answer, attempting to put down the required form before the

next problem is presented. The correct answers may be recorded at the end of the drill to enable the students to check their own work. If the teacher should wish to use such checks as quizzes, it is well to be sure that the student has had sufficient practice and to allow increased time for the writing of answers.

4. **Pattern Practice.** In addition to brief practices of this sort, pattern practices of 20-30 sentences may be used to cover or review somewhat larger units of form and syntax.

As the student begins to learn such practices, he should have the written text before him. After sufficient practice the student tries to respond to the English statement in Latin without reference to the text. The pattern may then be assigned for the next day's class when the teacher may test the student orally on the assigned sentences in random order. Written tests may follow the oral work. For this approach, listening facilities should be made available to the student so that he may work from the recording either in class time, in study periods or after school. Such equipment should be available out of fairness to the student so that he may have the opportunity to study in the way he is to be tested.

VALUES

Some of the values inherent in the judicious use of recordings have been indicated in the discussion of their use. There are other values, pscho logical in nature. The fact that the student knows that his response time is limited forces him to concentrate more intensely. When the use of earphones is possible, either in class or in study periods, concentration tends to improve, as outside distractions are minimized and the lessons become more personal and direct. The use of recordings requiring student response is also psychologically sound. They compel the student to employ hearing and speech as well as sight in his learning of Latin.

Tape recordings offer another sound pedagogic advantage in saving time. Responses are speeded up, long waits are avoided as the teacher proceeds quickly from one student to another. In a class of 25 students it is possible for each student to recite as many as four times in the space of 12-15 minutes. The limited amount of time alloted by the tape and the correction on the recordings tend to impersonalize the process of instruction and arouse no resentment in the student.

The last, but by no means the least, consideration is that rapid question and response demand mastery. The students have to learn what is correct; they have to learn it thoroughly in order to respond promptly; there is no opportunity for cribbing.

NEED FOR ORGANIZATION

It is necessary to have a carefully planned system for the use of recordings since a student's span of effective aural attention is limited to about twenty minutes. A good system will utilize the students themselves. They like to handle equipment; they are adept; they can be taught responsibility without an undue expenditure of time so as to have the equipment save time rather than expend it. No matter how careful the preparation is, however, the teacher venturing to use mechanical aids for the first time should be prepared for occasional mishaps. A few difficulties do not invalidate the procedure and they will become less and less frequent as the teacher becomes more skillful in the use of the equipment.

SUGGESTIONS FOR BUYING EQUIPMENT

In the acquisition of mechanical aids two factors will vary: the amount of money available and the facilities to house the equipment. In regard to machines, one should consider sturdiness and durability, ease and simplicity of operation, and adaptability. Sturdy, inexpensive equipment may do a better job than expensive, fussy equipment. Make sure that both the record player and the tape recorder are able to operate on both the earphone line and on the standard amplifier. The recording equipment should give reasonable fidelity so that distortion of sound will not distract the student from the work at hand. Before reaching the final decision on purchase, it is best to seek advice from those who have used mechanical equipment and spend time actually trying out several types of machines.

SUGGESTIONS FOR THE TEACHER'S LIBRARY

BOOKS

BOAK, A. E. R.: *A History of Rome to 565 A.D.,* Macmillan Co., New York, 1943.

GEER, R. M.: *Classical Civilization: Rome,* Prentice-Hall, New York, 1950.

EVERYMAN'S *Atlas of Ancient and Classical Geography,* rev. ed. 1952.

HARVEY, SIR PAUL: *Oxford Companion to Classical Literature,* Oxford University Press, New York, 1932.

SMITH, SIR WILLIAM: *Smaller Classical Dictionary,* (Everyman Series), J. M. Dent & Sons, London, 1934.

HADAS, M.: *History of Latin Literature,* Columbia University Press, New York, 1952.

HIGHET, G.: *The Classical Tradition, Greek and Roman Influences on Western Literature,* Oxford University Press, 1951.

THOMSON, J. A. K.: *The Classical Background of English Literature,* Allen and Unwin, London, 1948.

BEESON, C.: *Primer of Medieval Latin,* Scott, Foresman, & Co., Chicago, 1925.

GAYLEY, C. M.: *Classic Myths,* Ginn & Co., Boston, 1939.

PALMER, L. R.: *The Latin Language,* Faber & Faber, 1954, distributed by Macmillan Co., New York.

BURRISS, E. E. and CASSON, L.: *Latin and Greek in Current Use,* Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1939.

MYERS, EDWARD: *The Foundations of English,* Macmillan Co., New York, 1940.

LEWIS, C. T. and SHORT, C.: *Latin-English Dictionary,* Oxford University Press, 1951.

JOHNSTON, MARY: *Roman Life,* Scott, Foresman & Co., 1957.

SCHERER, M. R.: *Marvels of Ancient Rome,* Phaidon Publishers, New York, (for the Metropolitan Museum of Art), 1955.

PERIODICALS

Classical Journal. Classical Association of the Middle West and South, Inc.

Classical Outlook. American Classical League, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio.

Classical World (Successor to *Classical Weekly*). Classical Association of the Atlantic States.

Membership in the Classical Association of New England (Treasurer, Claude W. Barlow, Clark University, Worcester, Mass.) entitles the subscriber to reduced rates for these periodicals, and also for *Classical Philology* and *Classical Bulletin.*